

The Nation

VOL. XL.—NO. 1026.

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1885.

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The Nation.

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Assets January 1, 1885.....	1,489,381 49
Liabilities by Mass. and Conn.	
Standard of Reserve.....	1,156,345 34
Surplus to Policy-holders by Mass.	
and Conn. Standard of Reserve...	333,036 15
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1885.

The Week.

THERE appears to be little doubt that Senator Bayard is to be Secretary of State in the Cleveland Administration. If the general belief proves to be well founded, the country will feel reasonably secure against any sudden outbursts of "foreign policy" like those which overtook Mr. Blaine at the beginning of Mr. Garfield's Administration, and those which overcame Mr. Frelinghuysen at the close of Mr. Arthur's. Mr. Bayard represents in an eminent degree the conservative and common-sense policy embodied in Washington's farewell address, which has been the textbook of the common people from the earliest period. It will be a great satisfaction to know that there is a man at the head of the State Department whose leanings are favorable to peace, and opposed to every form of foreign embroilment and adventure. People will sleep more soundly under such an assurance, and business will rest upon a surer foundation. The dynamite Irish will, of course, be estranged by Mr. Bayard's appointment. Every faction which esteems American citizenship valuable chiefly for the opportunities it gives for pestering foreign governments, and seeks to make this country a fulcrum for disturbances abroad, will be aggrieved at the selection of Mr. Bayard. All the speculators in Central American lands, all the brokers of canal privileges, all the would-be builders of a great navy, and "all the unsettled humors of the land," will be disappointed and shocked. Fortunately these constitute a very insignificant part of the American people, and if they go over to the Republican party, or, being there already, decide to remain there, the Administration will be the gainer by such a disposition of the restless elements of the body politic.

It has been a part of the current Washington gossip that Mr. Bayard was reluctant to accept the position of Secretary of State on account of the expense which society imposes upon the head of that department. It is said that he is unable to maintain the scale of private expenditure which has been kept up by nearly all of the later chiefs of the Department. If this be true, he will have the rare opportunity of introducing a new and simpler mode of life, which is much to be desired. The social distinction which comes from giving the most elegant balls and the most expensive dinners, can be achieved by any fool who happens to have money, and has become so common that it has ceased to be a distinction. It is time for somebody in the higher ranks of public life to set an example of "plain living and high thinking." Here is a chance for real distinction, and Mr. Bayard is just the sort of man to lead the way. If he has the courage to let society know in the beginning that he does not intend to alter his style of living one iota, or to add a dollar to his private expenditures on account of his political promotion, he may not, indeed,

shame the extravagances of the rich, but he will keep in countenance those who are not rich, and will set an example which will be generously applauded by his countrymen.

Judging from the talk at the meeting of the Bay State Club, in Boston, on Monday, some of the Democrats in that region are indulging in what Mr. O'Brien, the Mayor, calls "pleasing dreams" about the civil service. They think they are going to get rid of competitive examinations and all that sort of flummery, and treat the country to another old-fashioned hoggish scramble for the national offices. We believe, however, that if they fancy Mr. Cleveland is going to treat them to anything of the kind they have mistaken their man. Moreover, if he attempted to gratify them, four years would see the end of their revel. The Democrats have now to decide whether they will enjoy prolonged power with decency, or have a short bout of hoggish indulgence, and then be driven from the trough for another quarter of a century. The wise men among them know this very well, and no one knows it better than Mr. Cleveland.

We believe, however, that the new President, in the legitimate and proper exercise of his authority, will have to make plenty of vacancies. There is not a doubt that two or three of the departments at Washington are honeycombed with corruption, and will have to be overhauled and cleaned out with an unsparing hand. For this the Republicans are not so much to blame as human nature. Human nature cannot bear twenty-five years of irresponsible power, with plenty of money, and this the Republicans have had. When you tell any body of men that they are so good, compared to everybody else, that it would be a sort of sin to prevent their doing what they please or to ask them for a pecuniary accounting, they take to corruption and abuse as a duck takes to water. But then, no matter how many vacancies President Cleveland may have to make in the subordinate places, he will fill them under the law with the best men who offer themselves. He will not put in another set of thieves or incapables simply because they are short of money, and have never been able to persuade honest business men to give them work. This sort of thing is over, and anybody who expects to revive it must prepare himself for defeat and humiliation.

The Senate has made itself a party to a very discreditable job in confirming the nomination for a second lieutenantship of Mr. Wright, who failed in his studies at West Point, and resigned in order to avoid being dropped. He would, had he remained in the Academy, have graduated in 1886. Having failed, he appears to have gone to work to secure "influence" enough to get a commission without graduating. The nomination he got; but a long-standing regulation of the Academy, based on common justice as well as sound policy, prescribes that no one who has failed to graduate shall obtain

a commission until both his own class and the classes above him have graduated and been commissioned. In other words, if he enters the army at all, he has to enter it below his former classmates and seniors at the school. This regulation in Wright's case was set aside. His commission gives him rank above the class of this and next year. In other words, a positive rule, approved by many Presidents and Secretaries of War, has been violated, not only to save him from the consequences of failure, but to put him in a better position than he would have held had he not failed. That the President should have made himself a party to such a performance is, we must honestly say, not surprising, as he has made himself a party to things still worse. But that the Senate should have been ready to sanction it is surprising. It is also surprising that Mr. Wright and his father should have been willing to accept a favor of this kind, which starts a young man in a profession that everywhere makes honor an object of special cultivation, through a somewhat tricky job. A worse beginning for a soldier's career it would be hard to think of. To make the thing complete, Mr. Wright is not ordered out to the dreary plains of the West, but has been assigned to duty here at the East, where he can make himself comfortable.

The action of the Senate in putting the Pacific Mail subsidy, which was rejected by the House, back into the Post-office Appropriation Bill, is striking evidence that the Republicans of that body do not yet realize that the country has really entered upon a new epoch, in which subsidies are to find very small favor. It was a curious blunder in politics to take this step now. There is, we are glad to believe, not the slightest danger that the House will recede from its position. The subsidy will be cut out by the Conference Committee, and all that Senator Frye and his subsidy allies will be able to accomplish, will be to show that they are loyal to the old subsidy policy to the last. The pretence that the donation of \$400,000 in this way is designed to accomplish in some inscrutable manner a "revival of American shipping," is so worn and thin that it deceives nobody any longer. If the project were put in its true light, as a present from the United States Government to the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, there would at least be no humbug about it.

The Anti-Foreign Contract Labor Bill, which has passed the Senate, is one of those mysterious fruits of modern statesmanship which nobody is capable of fully explaining. As it passed the House originally, the bill made it unlawful for any person or company to bring any alien or aliens into this country under contract to perform any kind of service whatever. Every person bringing in an alien under contract was to pay a fine of \$1,000. Italian street-sweepers, Hungarian miners, and railway workers were not only barred out by these penalties, but opera-singers, actors, lecturers, French nurses and servants as well.

The free and unfettered American, and the alien already on our shores, were to be "protected" against the talent and the labor of the whole outside world. The Senate has interfered with this fine scheme, and has so amended the bill as to omit singers, actors, lecturers, private secretaries, nurses and domestics. The Hungarian and Italian laborer is, however, still to be forbidden to come in under any contract whatever, under penalty of \$1,000 fine, the fine to be paid by the person bringing him in.

An amendment was offered, but does not appear to have been adopted, fining the laborer who came in under contract \$1,000. This would have been a noble scheme for enriching the country. How the fine was to be collected we do not know, but probably the Italian or Hungarian would be nabbed by the Custom-house officers when he landed, and required to give his note for \$1,000 before he was permitted to begin work. The idea was as sound as anything else in the bill, and its rejection is inexplicable. One provision which remains is in direct conflict with the general tone of the measure. By it a person or corporation engaging in a "new industry not at present established in the United States," can engage under contract skilled labor for the purpose, provided such labor cannot be otherwise obtained. This permits British capitalists to take a lot of "pauper laborers of Europe," bring them in here free of duty, and establish a hated foreign industry on such a low wage basis that American competition will from the outset be impossible. If contract-labor is wrong in principle when applied to an old industry, how can it be right when applied to a new industry? And what is to prevent laborers who are brought here under contract to work for an alleged new industry from being employed in some other industry after they are once admitted?

The Spanish treaty has been so deeply buried under the debris of the Nicaraguan treaty that a fresh reminder of its existence, coming by way of Madrid, seems to be needed to refresh our recollection. It is said that the Spanish Government has directed its Minister at Washington to withdraw certain "concessions on sugar" if the treaty is not ratified before the end of the present session of Congress. We had been of the opinion that all the concessions on sugar were of our making and not of Spanish origin at all, seeing that whatever is allowed in the way of discrimination in favor of Cuban sugar is in the nature of a bounty and a gratuity. The withdrawal of all concessions of every sort on both sides will be the most satisfactory disposition of the matter, and this is the most probable outcome of the adventure. It is manifestly impossible for both houses of Congress to act upon the treaty during the half-dozen working days which still remain to the present Congress. When the new Administration comes in, it will be a question whether the treaty shall be withdrawn from the Senate or not. Probably its withdrawal by the Executive would not be permissible under the comity of nations. An agreement having been made to submit it to the legislative branch of the Government, good

faith will require that the formalities which the Constitution provides for in our dealings with foreign countries be fully observed.

The *Rochester Democrat* says that Mr. Evarts, in his late speech at the Union League Club, "outlined the cardinal principles of Republicanism." We have read the speech with care for the purpose of discovering them, but in vain. This may, however, be due to mental obtuseness on our part, and we shall be grateful to any Republican contemporary who will quote the passage which contains the "outline." There is great curiosity all over the country about "the cardinal principles of the Republican party," and it increases, and anybody who knows where they are and will reveal them, can, we think, now achieve some fame, besides making a little money. A rumor is afloat that they are among the private papers of the late Hugh Hastings which his family refuse to produce. Our own belief is that Mr. Evarts has not seen them. One gentleman has tried to persuade us that there is only one "cardinal principle" of the party, namely, that it ought to have the offices in perpetuity; but he is a Democratic wag.

Mr. Roswell Smith, the proprietor of the *Century* magazine, and President, though a layman, of the Congregational Club of ministers, expressed himself very forcibly at a meeting of the Club on the 17th with regard to Mr. Evarts's extraordinary statement, in his Union League Club speech, that the South "remained in heart, substance, and purpose" what it was in 1860. Mr. Smith declared, amid the cheers and laughter of his auditors, that

"a man who has the audacity to stand up in the Union League Club and assert at this time that there has been no change in the sentiment of the South in the past twenty-five years, lies under a mistake, to say the least of it."

He further added that he himself was so disgusted with this utterance of Mr. Evarts that he rose and left the room on hearing it. We think he was too severe on Mr. Evarts, however. There was not sense or substance enough in the assertion to furnish materials for a mistake. Mr. Evarts was producing sound, not making propositions, and was satisfied if it kept people listening.

The Senatorial contests in Illinois and Oregon have passed through several new phases during the past few days. In Oregon, after sixty-eight fruitless ballots, the Legislature has adjourned *sine die*. By remaining in session a few days longer an election might have been effected, but the forty-day limit for a legislative session, after which the members receive no pay, had been reached, and that precipitated an adjournment. There is said to be some conflict of opinion about the right of the Governor, under the State Constitution, to fill the vacancy by appointment, but in reality it is the Federal and not the State Constitution which is his guide, and the language of that instrument is plain enough for anybody to understand. It expressly provides that "if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments

until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies." The vacancy in the Oregon Senatorship will not be created till March 4, when the term of the present Senator will expire. The Governor can then appoint a successor who can hold office until the next meeting of the Legislature, which, as there are only biennial sessions in Oregon, will not occur until the fall of 1886, unless an extra session is convened.

In Illinois the case is somewhat different. The Legislature is still in session, and is likely to be for some time to come. A plan is said to be under consideration for throwing the appointment into the hands of the Governor, which is clearly unconstitutional. It is proposed, in case the present deadlock continues till March 4, to have a resolution introduced in the Legislature declaring a vacancy and requesting the Governor to fill it by appointment. Under the Constitution this clearly cannot be done. The power to fill the office is vested in the Legislature alone, and the only way in which it can be transferred to the Governor is by adjournment *sine die*. There is some talk of transferring it by having the Legislature take a recess, but this also is plainly in violation of the Constitutional provision. The Governors of Oregon and Illinois are both Republicans, so that the various plans in both States to have them fill the vacancies by appointment cannot be said truthfully to be designs for helping the wicked old Confederacy into the saddle again.

The votes taken at Springfield indicate pretty clearly that there will be no election of a Senator by the Illinois Legislature at its present session, and that there will be a vacancy in the Senate after the 4th of March. In any legislative body which is equally divided politically there will always be found one, or two, or three obstinate and possibly corrupt members who, in order to gratify some spite or crotchet, or to make some money, will refuse to agree to anything, and will change their own ground as often as there is any prospect of coming to an agreement. Of course reasons can be found in abundance to excuse or justify such persons. Four Democrats have refused to support Mr. Morrison on account of his tariff record. One Republican has refused to vote for General Logan for the singular reason that the caucus did not fix upon some candidate as their second choice. Failure to agree upon a second choice before a trial had been made of the first choice is construed by this severe casuist to mean "Logan or nobody." So he says that he is not voting against Logan, but against the principle of exclusiveness in caucuses. Here is a field for political reform which has been much neglected. The name of its cultivator is Sittig.

The Democratic bolters, with one exception, cast their votes for Haines, the Speaker of the House. One member has attached his fortunes to a rich cattle-dealer named Hoxie—this by way of protecting the iron interests of the country. The principal difficulty lies in the fact that if all the members on both sides should vote for their respective caucus nominees, the result would be a tie. This shows the impor-

ance of making the total number of members of the Legislature an odd number, so that a tie vote shall be impossible. Probably this contingency would have been looked after and provided against in the Illinois Constitution, had not the principle of minority representation been introduced. The plan adopted for putting it in force resulted in making a Senate of 51 members, a House of 153, and a joint session of 204. There has been a good deal of complaint against minority representation among the politicians of Illinois, because it upsets the calculations of both parties, but there is nothing to show that it does not fairly represent the popular will. Provision, however, ought to be made to avoid tie votes in the joint sessions.

They had an old-fashioned debate in the Massachusetts Legislature last week, over a bill abolishing the rule which makes the testimony of persons who do not believe in the existence of a God inadmissible in courts of justice. The facts of daily life, as observed by everybody, show that there is no perceptible difference in the matter of truth-telling between people who say they do not believe in the existence of a God and those who say they do. A declaration of this belief is in fact so easy, and does a man so much good with his neighbors, that nearly all liars make it as a matter of course. A man needs to be very honest and truthful to deny the existence of God, and as a general rule the testimony of such men is apt to be as reliable as that of professed believers. The principle that religious belief has nothing to do, and ought to have nothing to do, with a man's credibility as a witness is now acknowledged in the jurisprudence of most civilized countries, including twenty-eight States of this Union. But the Massachusetts Senate rejected it sternly by 24 to 10, after a luminous debate. One Senator held that a man who "denied under the genial sunlight his belief in the Author of that radiance," ought to be punished for it in some way. Another Senator opposed putting the man who denied the existence of a God "on an equality with the man who devoutly acknowledged it." The object of a court of law in examining witnesses is to find out the truth about a particular transaction, and not to discourage infidelity. No man conducts his business or his social life on the assumption that atheists are untruthful or dishonest; and to administer justice so as to deprive him of important testimony in his favor, on such a theory, is monstrous as well as barbarous.

The proposed change in the curriculum at Harvard is less of a defeat for the Grecians than would appear. They have only consented to make Greek or Latin optional for admission in cases in which the candidate agrees to take, in place of the omitted language, in addition to all other requisitions, two courses of college study, one in mathematics and the other in either mathematics or physics, as part of his preparation. These extra courses are to be courses actually given in the College, to Freshmen especially, and occupying each three hours a week in recitations through one year. Consequently, nobody can escape Greek or Latin without giving serious pledges to science. This

arrangement was the result of a compromise in the committee, and probably the only one which the Faculty would have adopted, and is not wholly satisfactory to the scientific and modern-language men.

The condition of Ireland is telling just now seriously on English foreign policy, as it did once before at the close of the American war. There are about 30,000 good troops in Ireland who are sorely needed on the Nile, but General Steele, who is in command, says he cannot spare a man of them. There is something melancholy, under these circumstances, in the talk of a visit of the Prince of Wales to Ireland as a sort of sedative. Forty years ago, when the young Queen was making her plans of life, the transfer of the court during a portion of the year to Ireland, a little fostering of Irish sentimental nationalism such as has been bestowed so lavishly on that of Scotland, would doubtless have had a good deal of political effect. After half a century of neglect, however, on the part of royalty — neglect that may almost be called studied — and the infusion into the Irish mind from this side of the Atlantic of Republicanism in its least reverential form, coupled with savage social discontents, the Irish are hardly likely to receive the Prince in a very cordial way. In fact, the visit seems like an opportunity for insult and outrage, of which some wretch may avail himself, and which the rest of the population will take with a calm that will make Englishmen furious.

There are still but few indications of the probable result of the debate in the British House of Commons on Sir Stafford Northcote's vote of censure. Mr. Gladstone seems to be defending himself rather feebly, as if his heart were not in the work, and we presume there can be no doubt that he is really unable to make a creditable explanation of the Sudan affair. His policy in Egypt has reflected the varying moods of the British taxpayer; but when the taxpayer sees it traced in black and white he does not like it, and thinks some one has been blundering and must be punished. Lord Salisbury is said to have declared that he was ready for office, but this is enough to frighten a good many wavering Liberals. Much is evidently going to depend on the Irish vote, for which both sides are bidding. The Liberals can have it, if they will promise not to renew the Coercion Act, but they have apparently not made up their minds to do so. The Conservatives, like all parties out of power, are much readier with their promises. Mr. Gladstone's age and weariness are doubtless counting for a good deal in the conflict.

Mr. Gladstone's faults in Egyptian affairs, and notably the fault of hanging back, and doing no more than the occasion imperatively called for, are chargeable on the English public alone. They have all along wanted some interference, but as little as possible; and some fighting, but not one shot more than was necessary. They have forgotten, however, that one shot always leads to another, and that a nation big enough to have what is called "prestige" cannot carry on a little war.

There was a universal chorus of approval of Wolseley and the Government from the moment he developed his plan at Korti until Wilson brought back the news of the fall of Khartum. The plan was based on the "general idea," as the strategists call it, that Gordon could hold out for a reasonable time, and that when the British got within sticking distance, he would be able with his garrison to reach out into communication with them, and either evacuate Khartum with their help, or drive the Mahdi away from it. The garrison of Khartum, headed by Gordon, was in fact an important element in Wolseley's calculations, and these proved wonderfully correct. He reached Korti by the river most successfully, with his men in excellent condition, and then made that brilliant push for the river across the desert which would have relieved Khartum and rescued Gordon had the latter held his own. The expedition was three days too late, but not in consequence of anything which a military commander can be expected to foresee or allow for. Treachery plays no part in the game of war, any more than thunder or earthquakes. If Gordon had fallen through an assault of the Mahdi's forces, or through the exhaustion of his supplies, after warning his superior of his weakness, the Ministry would be undoubtedly responsible for his death. But he had never expressed any doubt of his ability to hold the place. What he chafed under and complained of was his inability to go out and "smash the Mahdi," and the policy of "smashing the Mahdi" was one to which the Government never gave one word of support.

Nor can they fairly be held responsible for delay in going to Gordon's rescue. They did not begin to prepare the expedition until August, it is true, but they never thought of sending an expedition until Gordon's obstinacy and disobedience had led to his being shut up in Khartum, and his audacity had led the British public to make a hero of him. If August was late, it was because not until then did the Government feel really sure that the English public demanded that thousands of lives should be put in peril in order that one fanatical adventurer should be saved from the consequences of his own folly and insubordination. The military problem has now wholly changed its character. Wolseley is no longer marching to effect an entrance into an impregnable stronghold held by a friendly garrison. The Mahdi is no longer blockading Khartum with a few thousand spearmen, without artillery or ammunition. He has secured a fortress in which he can stand a siege, and the capture of which not only liberates the force with which he has been attacking it, but brings him thousands of new recruits from the surrounding region. He has, moreover, secured a good deal of artillery and ammunition, and is descending the river in such force that he could probably crush any of Wolseley's detachments by mere weight of numbers. Under these circumstances there is nothing for Wolseley to do but draw in his detachments, and wait until his expedition is enlarged sufficiently to undertake the new and immense task of conquering the Sudan.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 18, to TUESDAY, February 24, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

In the House debate on the River and Harbor Bill on Wednesday, an amendment was adopted appropriating \$500,000 for the improvement of Galveston Harbor, and directing the Harbor Board to proceed at once to examine the plans, specifications, and estimates for the improvement, and report to the Secretary of War for his approval.

The House Committee on Coinage, Weights, and Measures held a meeting on Wednesday to consider the bill introduced by Mr. Dorsheimer "to regulate the coinage and to promote the circulation of gold and silver equally." They gave a hearing to J. Edwards Pierpont, of New York, in advocacy of that measure. He contended that the free coinage of domestic silver in dollars of 480 grains troy would increase the volume of the currency, which was now far too small, and would restore confidence to the business of the country.

The House debated the Naval Bill on Thursday. On a motion to strike out the paragraph appropriating \$400,000 for the completion of the *New York*, Mr. Hewitt said that it was as preposterous as ridiculous for the country to undertake to build or finish the building of wooden ships. The motion to strike out was lost.

In Committee of the Whole on Friday, the Chairman of the House ruled out of order the clause in the River and Harbor Bill relative to the Hennepin Canal, on the ground that that Committee had not original jurisdiction of the subject, and that it should properly have been considered by the Committee on Railways and Canals. A motion to strike out the entire Mississippi River clause was carried.

The House passed the Naval Appropriation Bill on Monday, but without including Mr. Randall's proposition for rebuilding the navy, and with an amendment authorizing the building of a steel cruiser of from 5,000 to 6,000 tons displacement, at a cost of \$1,780,000. The House also passed with the Senate amendments the bill forfeiting the Texas-Pacific land grant. On Tuesday the House voted down the other appropriation bills and took up the River and Harbor Bill by a vote of 139 to 122. This is not a hopeful indication for the progress of business.

The Post-office Appropriation Bill was reported in the Senate on Thursday. It appropriates \$53,819,990, an increase of \$300,000 over the bill as passed by the House, and \$3,279,179 less than the estimates. The aggregate appropriated is \$2,547,169 in excess of the estimated revenue for the fiscal year 1886. An increase of \$490,000 is made in the appropriation for transportation on railroad routes.

Despite an earnest protest by Mr. Edmunds the Senate on Friday voted, by a large majority, to retain in the Post-office Appropriation Bill the clause fixing the rate of postage on first-class mail matter at two cents per ounce instead of two cents per half-ounce. On Monday it passed the bill with Mr. Frye's Pacific Mail subsidy amendment by a vote of 30 to 18.

The Senate on Thursday, with but two dissenting votes (Blair and Bowen), passed the bill forfeiting the Texas-Pacific land grant. It goes back to the House because of unimportant amendments.

The General Deficiency Bill reported to the House of Representatives on Wednesday provides for an appropriation of \$3,561,916, of which amount \$75,000 is made in compliance with the recommendation of the Postmaster-General for clerk hire in various post-offices.

The House Sundry Civil Bill gives the Federal Civil-Service Commission only \$19,140. They will ask the Senate so to amend the bill as to give them one new clerk at \$1,400 a year

and a laborer at \$660. Their clerical force is now so small that they are required to work regularly an hour longer each day than clerks in the executive departments.

In the investigation of the Pension Bureau on Wednesday, Mr. Sawyer, who has charge of the statistics of the Bureau, testified that when Mr. Dudley became Commissioner in 1881 the running expenses of the office were about \$500,000 a year, and that for the last year they were \$2,900,000, the special examiners' division alone costing about \$1,000,000. He said that the increase in the amount of work now performed in the Bureau over that done before Mr. Dudley became Commissioner was very slight.

Recently the Treasury gold fund increased more than \$1,500,000. This and other indications have convinced Secretary McCulloch that the action of the Department, the efforts to secure the stoppage of the silver coinage, and the probabilities of that result, have averted the threatened withdrawal of gold from circulation.

The findings of the Court-martial in the case of Judge-Advocate-General Swaim of the United States army, and the sentence of the court as approved by President Arthur, were made public on Tuesday. He was found "guilty of conduct to the prejudice of good order and military discipline, in violation of the 62d Article of War," and sentenced to be suspended from rank and duty for twelve years and to forfeit one-half his monthly pay for the same period.

The dedication ceremonies of the Washington Monument were successfully carried out on Saturday. In the morning at 11 o'clock there were open-air exercises at the monument, where speeches were made by Senator Sherman, Colonel Thomas L. Casey, President Arthur, and W. W. Corcoran (read by Dr. J. C. Welling). The great procession then moved to the Capitol, where, in the hall of the House of Representatives, Robert C. Winthrop's oration was read by ex-Governor Long, of Massachusetts. An oration was also delivered by John W. Daniels, of Virginia.

The Michigan House on Thursday, by exactly the necessary two-thirds vote, adopted a prohibitory constitutional amendment for submission to the people. All the Republicans but two, and twenty-three Democrats, voted yea. Its fate in the Senate is doubtful.

In the Assembly at Albany on Friday a Prison Labor Bill was reported favorably from committee which provides that "no contract shall hereafter be made by which the time or labor of any prisoner or prisoners in any State prison, reformatory, or penitentiary in this State shall be let, hired, or sold to any contractor. The system of labor in the State prisons, reformatories, and penitentiaries of this State shall be on State account, or by the piece-price plan, or partly by the one system and partly by the other, as the Superintendent of State Prisons, or the managers of penitentiaries and reformatories, may deem best for the interests of their respective institutions and the convicts employed therein." A motion to recommit the bill was carried by 72 to 35, no Democrats voting in the negative.

The Judiciary Committee reported to the Assembly against appointing a special committee to investigate the action of Judges Truax, Andrews, and Beach in the scandals attending the closing hours of Mayor Edson's administration in this city. After a warm debate the report was sustained, 59 to 37.

The American Iron and Steel Association has received returns of the Bessemer steel production in the United States last year. The total quantity of ingots converted was 1,538,355 net tons. As compared with the production in 1883 there was a falling off of 116,272 tons, or only 7 per cent. The maximum production of Bessemer steel ingots was reached in 1882, when 1,696,450 tons were converted.

The Harvard Overseers on Wednesday referred to committees the propositions to make

morning prayers no longer compulsory and to print the quinquennial catalogue in English.

The Yale Alumni Association of this city gave a reception at the University Club Theatre on Friday evening to Senator-elect William M. Evarts, who was a member of the class of 1837.

Judge Houston, of New Orleans, has rejected both of Mrs. Myra Clark Gaines's wills. That in favor of Mrs. Evans is pronounced a forgery. The nuncupative will was in favor of her children. The succession will have to be administered according to Louisiana law. An appeal to the Supreme Court will be taken.

The funeral ceremonies of Dr. Leopold Damrosch took place on Wednesday afternoon at the Metropolitan Opera-house in this city. The musical services, in which the Oratorio Society and Symphony orchestra took part, were very impressive. Addresses were made by Felix Adler and the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher. A letter from Assistant Bishop H. C. Potter was read.

Dr. Louis Elsberg, eminent as a specialist in the treatment of the throat and larynx, and an author of books on those subjects, died on Thursday in this city. He was forty-eight years old, and was a native of Westphalia. He was the first physician to introduce the laryngoscope into general practice in this country.

William C. Kingsley, ex-President of the Brooklyn Bridge trustees, died in Brooklyn on Saturday at the age of fifty-two. After the death of the chief engineer of the work, the late John A. Roebling, in 1869, Mr. Kingsley was made Superintendent. He had charge of the work until the towers were three feet above high tide, and then resigned.

Jonathan J. Wright, Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of South Carolina from 1870 to 1877, and the only colored man who ever held the office in that State, died on Thursday, aged forty-four years.

FOREIGN.

The British Parliament opened on Thursday at 4 P.M. In the House of Lords the Government was at once assailed with Conservative questions. Earl Granville, Minister for Foreign Affairs, replied. He frankly stated that the Government had left it entirely to General Lord Wolseley to decide whether the British forces should proceed to attack Khartum at once or delay the attack until later, say some time next autumn. Earl Granville admitted that the Government believed that General Wolseley would decide upon a postponement of the aggressive operations. He said: "The finances of Egypt and the relief of Gordon, that heroic soldier whose loss has excited the greatest sympathy and unanimous regret, are the prominent questions before the country."

In the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone said that the present situation did not allow the Government to make overtures to El Mahdi, because such overtures might defeat their own object. He added that he had done all he could for General Gordon, and was not to be held responsible for his death. "Our policy in the Sudan," continued the Premier, "is still for evacuation. The recent events there prevented the immediate application of this policy. The fall of Khartum altered, in a military sense, the whole situation in the Sudan. Lord Wolseley is authorized to take what measures he sees fit to overthrow the Mahdi at Khartum. No further communications will be made to the Mahdi, but any received from him will be considered."

Sir Stafford Northcote gave notice that he would move on the earliest day possible that an humble address be presented to her Majesty the Queen, representing that the course pursued by her present Liberal Government in regard to Egypt and the Sudan had involved a great sacrifice of valuable lives and heavy expenses, without any beneficial results [cheers], rendering it imperatively necessary to the interests of the British Empire and the Egyptian people that the Government should distinctly recognize and take decided measures to fulfil the responsibility, now incumbent upon them

to insure good stable government in Egypt and in those portions of the Sudan necessary for Egypt's security.

Monday was fixed for debate on the motion, when Sir Stafford Northcote, in the course of his address, said: "We are getting daily into deeper water, and whatever the consequences may be I feel compelled to summon the House to pronounce a verdict in our case the same as it has done on previous occasions, with the additional experience of the value of the Ministry's promise and the success of the Ministry's action." In his reply, Mr. Gladstone paid a tribute to the devotion of Gordon, saying that his one object in life was to do good to all, irrespective of race, color, or creed. He denied that the Government had any reason to suppose last year that Gordon was in imminent danger. General Gordon's own despatches, said Mr. Gladstone, had led the Government to believe that he would retreat with the garrison southward if possible. The Government had not swerved a hair's breadth from the covenant to send General Gordon assistance when necessary and when possible to do so. He referred to the statements of General Gordon's colonels that under no circumstances could relief have been timely, as Farag had long ago agreed to betray Khartum as soon as the British arrived. If the House thought the Government had failed in its duty, the latter would cheerfully accept the verdict, but if they believed it had acted with good intentions and without palpable errors of judgment, he hoped they would give expression to their confidence, and thus strengthen the hands of the whole country in the face of the world. The debate was continued on Tuesday without noticeable incident, except the suspension of William O'Brien, editor of *United Ireland*, who created an uproar, and a significant speech by Mr. Goschen, foreshadowing his adhesion to the vote of censure.

In the House of Commons on Friday the Marquis of Hartington, Secretary of State for War, stated that Prince Hassan had been appointed Governor-General of the Sudan at the suggestion of General Lord Wolsley. Prince Hassan would be under the authority of Lord Wolsley. The Marquis also stated that the Government presume that Lord Wolsley has received one volume of General Gordon's diary. The remaining volumes, believed to be five in number, were on the way from Gubat to Korti. After he had seen these volumes, the Marquis continued, he would be better able to state whether or not their contents would be published.

Sir William Vernon Harcourt, Home Secretary, addressing a deputation of unemployed London workmen on Wednesday, said: The question as to the best method of relief was an extremely difficult one. Experience had shown that attempts to relieve distress by inaugurating public improvements were unwise. The failure of the efforts made by France to relieve distress thirty-five years ago by starting and carrying on vast public works was pointed to as an illustration. The Government, however, the Home Secretary promised, would look into the matter closely, and would consider the advisability of stimulating the efforts of the local philanthropic bodies with a view to affording larger temporary relief.

It is announced that the Prince and Princess of Wales will make a tour of Ireland in April.

Doctor Walsh, the well-known President of Maynooth College, and leader of the Nationalist clergy, will be appointed Cardinal McCabe's successor. The new Cardinal "will be a figure in Irish affairs second only to Mr. Parnell."

It was made known in London on Wednesday that General Sir Redvers Buller on February 14, after rendering Gordon's two steamers useless, withdrew his whole force from Gubat to Abu-Klea, arriving at the latter place on the following day without firing a shot. The reason for the abandonment of Gubat was the advance made by El Mahdi from Umderman toward Gubat, and the retreat was ordered when the main body of the Arabs was

twenty miles off; but an advance guard of 3,000 men, with five cannon, was within seven miles of the British lines. The total force at Abu-Klea, including the Egyptians and Sudanese, now amounts to 1,900 men, with 1,500 camels. The water supply is not sufficient for the men and camels.

General Sir Redvers Buller telegraphed on Wednesday that a convoy of wounded in charge of General Talbot, while on the way from Gubat to Abu-Klea, met a force of 5,000 rebels at a point nine miles from Gubat, and a slight skirmish ensued, in which one British soldier was killed and five wounded. The rebels then proceeded toward Metemneh. The convoy reached Abu-Klea in safety.

On Thursday the announcement was made that in view of the fact that the fall of Khartum and the death of General Gordon had rendered the main object of General Lord Wolsley's expedition impossible, the Government deemed it expedient to change the whole plan of the campaign in the Sudan. General Brackenbury, who succeeded the late General Earle, was ordered to abandon his advance on Berber, and to concentrate his troops at Korti. Gen. Sir Redvers Buller was also ordered to fall back on Korti. All the available troops in General Wolsley's command will be concentrated at that place and at Debbeh and Korosko, the main body being at Korti. It is probable that General Lord Wolsley may finally evacuate Korti and retire to Debbeh, where desert routes from Umderman, El Obeid, and Darfur converge on the Nile. General Lord Wolsley will there await help from England. At Korti he could be surrounded.

The alarm in England caused by this retreat was intensified on Friday by a despatch from Korti saying that General Buller had been compelled to halt at Abu-Klea Wells and intrench his troops in a position there, in order safely to defend himself against El Mahdi's men, who were gathering in large numbers on his line of retreat, and were continually menacing the British forces. Special despatches indicated that General Lord Wolsley would have to send strong reinforcements to General Buller if the latter is to be rescued from his perilous position.

It was also announced in London that the Government had called out the militia and suspended transfers of officers from the regular army to the reserves. This action created a profound sensation, and a general feeling of alarm respecting the safety not only of the forces under General Buller, but also of those under Generals Wolsley and Brackenbury.

The Queen's message does not, as at first reported, call out the reserves, but orders the soldiers at present serving, who would otherwise be entitled to retire as reserves, to remain in active service until further notice. Two batteries of artillery and six regiments of infantry of the militia, one being an Irish regiment, will be embodied. It is believed that a portion of the militia will be used to garrison Ireland.

The Coldstream Guards left England for Egypt on Thursday, and the Grenadier Guards on Friday. They were given a royal farewell. Queen Victoria sent them Godspeed. The Prince of Wales made a personal address. The Scots Greys departed on Saturday.

An Egyptian Blue-book, issued in London on Monday, contained a number of notable letters from Gordon. On November 4 he wrote to Wolsley: "I can hold out forty days longer with ease. After that it will be difficult. Your expedition, as I understand, is for the relief of the garrison of Khartum, which I failed to accomplish. I decline to admit that it is for the rescue of me personally." In a letter dated September 4 he said: "How many times have we written asking for reinforcements and calling your serious attention to the Sudan, and no answer came! Men's hearts become weary of delay. While you are eating and drinking and resting in good beds, we and those with us, soldiers and

servants, are watching night and day, trying to quell the movements of the Mahdi. Of course, you take no interest to suppress this rebellion, the serious consequences of which are the reverse of victorious for you. Neglect thereof won't do." It appears from a letter dated December 14 that General Gordon never said, "I can hold out for years," as has been published, but, on the contrary, had declared that food was scarce and that relief should be sent him at once.

An Arabian paper reports that the Mahdi promised Farag 140,000 thalers to betray Khartum, but gave him only 60,000, and when Farag complained the Mahdi hanged him. It is said that the Mahdi captured 15,000 Remington rifles at Khartum.

General Gordon's trusted messenger, George, arrived at Abu-Klea on Wednesday. He says that almost all the native accounts agree that General Gordon, on finding himself betrayed, made a rush for the magazine near the Catholic Mission buildings. Finding the rebels already in possession, he returned to the Government House and was killed while trying to re-enter it. The rebels were admitted to Khartum at 10 o'clock on the night of the 26th of January. It is reported that General Gordon's last message to General Wolsley, "I can hold on at Khartum for years," was preceded by the question, "What are you coming for? I have not asked for you."

A despatch from Korti on Friday brought the sad intelligence of the death of General Sir Herbert Stewart, who was wounded at the Zereba fight of January 19. The death occurred February 16 at Gakdul Wells, where the wounded were brought from Gubat. This death cast a profound gloom over the whole army in Egypt. General Stewart was only forty-two, and had distinguished himself in the Zulu, Alexandria, and Suakim campaigns. His recent brave march across the desert from Korti to Gubat is fresh in public memory, as are the two victories of January 17 and 19.

A report was sent from Korti on Friday of a night attack by Arabs on General Buller, which occurred on February 16. The latter sent the following message: "About thirty of the enemy's cavalry scouted around us all day Monday. They were reinforced about an hour before sunset by 400 infantry armed with rifles. The infantry crossed the hills to the northeast of us, and have kept up a well-aimed, desultory, long-range fire. This fire has thus far caused sixteen casualties." Two of the British were killed. General Buller has erected three new forts, and is preparing for a siege. He despatched a messenger to General Wolsley describing his situation to be critical, and stating that El Mahdi was advancing with an immense force. General Wood, who is at Gakdul, immediately sent transport camels to General Buller.

The text of the treaty under which Germany has gained a protectorate over the Samoan Islands has been published. The treaty provides for the creation of a Council of State, to consist of the German Consul, two Samoans, and two Germans. This Council is empowered to establish laws in the interest of the Samoans and of the Germans resident upon the islands. A German officer will act as the adviser of the King, and will serve as judge in all penal matters in which Germans are concerned. Germany is allowed to withdraw from this agreement by giving six months' previous notice.

Admiral Courbet telegraphed on Wednesday that the French fleet had had an engagement with five Chinese men-of-war. Two of the latter were sunk by the French torpedo boats. The three others escaped in a fog to Chinghai.

The German Reichstag on Wednesday rejected a proposal to defer the adoption of the increased duties on rye until the expiration of the existing commercial treaty between Germany and Spain. The Reichstag also decided to retain the existing duties on oats and pulse, which the Government wanted to raise 50 per cent., but agreed to increase the duties on buckwheat and barley by 50 pfennigs.

THE SILVER CAMPAIGN.

LATE reports from Washington indicate that the extreme silver men are so exasperated against Governor Cleveland for what they call his interference with their prerogatives, that they will resort to filibustering against any bill which proposes to suspend the silver coinage, and that they will defeat the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill altogether rather than allow it to pass with such a clause. Filibustering is the last resort of a desperate minority. If it should be resorted to in this case, it would be evidence that the silver coinage is doomed, and that its advocates have no expectation of keeping it up by fair means. Filibusters in legislative bodies always get the worst of it in the long run. They might succeed in the few remaining days of the present Congress, but their proceedings would serve to make a political issue for the country. Nothing would be more acceptable to the advocates of honest money. They ask nothing better than a "square stand-up fight." Governor Cleveland could desire nothing better than an issue at the beginning of his Administration which should designate him as the champion and defender of an honest dollar.

The friends of honest money have no fears of the result of such a contest. They have fought similar battles in the past against greater odds. They remember the greenback craze of 1868, when even Senator Sherman, of Ohio, lent his influence and prestige to the faction which proposed to pay the bonds in greenbacks. They recall the "Inflation Bill" of 1874, when Senator Morton, of Indiana, became the champion of a bad currency. They have not forgotten the fight against specie resumption in 1877-78. They are as ready to try conclusions with the silver maniacs as they were with the greenbackers in those memorable contests. It would be in many respects a good thing to have such a battle at the hustings. The hollowness of the silver delusion would be exposed, and its dupes would be so thoroughly beaten that we might look for peace and common decency in matters of national finance for a generation to come. The actual presence of \$200,000,000 of silver coin among us, largely unused, has deprived the silver advocates of the chief argument which served them when they passed their bill in 1878. The "dollar of the fathers" is now to be had in any desired quantity. Sentimental considerations no longer demand the sacrifice of \$2,000,000 per month of the hard earnings of the people, to be stored in costly vaults already full to overflowing. If the devotees of the 85-cent dollar fancy that their opponents desire to shirk the issue or to put a stop to the coinage by trick or indirection, they are much mistaken. What they want is a stop put to a wasteful expenditure of the public treasure, and to a ruinous debasement and depreciation of the money in every man's pocket. If the Republicans in Congress are as far-seeing as they were when the Inflation Bill and the Anti-Resumption Bill were the great questions of the day, they will not allow Governor Cleveland to have the advantage of an issue which will surely draw to his side a great reinforcement

from their ranks. Nothing would so rapidly disintegrate their party through all the marts of commerce, East and West, as an issue which should put them in the attitude of hostility or indifference toward the principles of sound finance, or which should enable the incoming Administration to take the headship of these principles away from them.

The principal strength of the silver faction, we regret to observe, is in the South. Why it should be so is an unsolved mystery; yet of the 121 members of the House who are counted upon to oppose any suspension of the coinage, 74 are from the Southern States. These States are not producers of silver. They are perhaps the most prosperous section of the Union today. The business depression of the past three years has affected them less than the North. The percentage of unemployed laborers is smaller with them than anywhere else in the country. Their great staple, cotton, would be the first to feel the evil consequences of a depreciated currency. Being managed by Northern brokers and Northern capital, good care would be taken that the losses consequent upon a slowly declining standard of value should fall upon the producers. Capital would take care of itself as it always does in such cases. The loss would fall chiefly on the cultivator and the laborer, and in the last extremity we should have two standards of value—one for the commercial classes, and the other for common people. The standard of the civilized world will be maintained by its own intrinsic force in spite of legislation, and all values will have to be computed in it, as was the case during the paper régime which preceded the restoration of specie payments.

The *Tribune* asserts, without a blush, that Republican members of Congress ought to consider themselves affronted by any attempt to curtail the coinage of silver, which confers upon the President of the United States the power to suspend such coinage, even for a single year. If they find themselves affronted by the proposed plan for relieving the business interests of the country, the suggestion is plain that they ought to vote against Mr. Randall's measure. The *Chicago Tribune*, on the other hand, which was perhaps the most ardent advocate of the Silver Bill in the whole country at the time when it was enacted, says that "If Cleveland can prevail upon his party majority in the House to order the coinage of silver to cease for the present, he will be entitled to the gratitude of the country, and it will be an excellent start for his Administration."

The Democrats ought to learn a lesson from their adversaries in this matter. If the temporary suspension of the silver coinage will be "an excellent start for the Administration," and if the apprehensions of such a result lead the principal Elaine organ to change its policy and stultify itself in the grossest manner, the policy of Mr. Cleveland's friends ought to be clear to the dullest comprehension. Especially ought Southern members of Congress to see wherein the path of safety lies. The "pivotal States" which gave Mr. Cleveland the votes necessary to elect him, are very nearly of one mind regarding the silver coinage. Nearly all persons who think for themselves—that is, all

who make the body of public opinion and give shape to parties and policies—in New England, New York, and New Jersey are earnestly opposed to silver. Their opposition rests upon a profound conviction that further coinage of that metal means disaster to business. They believe that it signifies not merely a change in the standard of value, but the introduction of two standards, of varying values, with all the confusion and uncertainty and loss which such an anomalous condition of monetary affairs must bring in its train.

"POLITICS" IN THE PENSION BUREAU.

WE are in a fair way to find out what it has cost the country to have the Pension Bureau in the hands of a political "worker" for nearly three years. The statistician of the Bureau, Mr. Sawyer, testified last week before an investigating committee, that when Commissioner Dudley took charge of the office in 1881 its running expenses were about \$500,000 a year; that now they are \$2,900,000; that the examiners' division alone costs \$1,000,000 a year, though the increase in work there is very slight; that during the last six months, with 390 examiners at work, the number of cases decided was seven per cent. less than the number for the same period last year with only 240 examiners. The expense-account clerk testified that the reports of the special examiner showed that no work at all was done during the last two weeks of September—the period, it will be remembered, when the Ohio campaign was at its height, and the Commissioner was on the ground leading it in person. It was also shown to the Committee that the Medical Reviewer of the Bureau, Mr. Ross, went to Indiana six weeks before election, and devoted only five days during that period to his official duties, yet drew his salary all the time, together with nearly \$200 for expenses.

Mr. Dudley, the late Commissioner, it will be remembered, was appointed under peculiarly discreditable circumstances, and his conduct in the last campaign was thoroughly disgraceful. When Garfield became President in 1881, the Commissioner of Pensions was Mr. Bentley. He was a public servant of great ability and faithfulness, having administered the office with striking success during a period of great perplexity. The passage of the Arrears of Pensions Act had enormously increased the work of the Bureau, and at the same time, by holding out larger prizes, had greatly stimulated the greed of those who live by cheating the Government on the one hand, and the pensioners on the other. Mr. Bentley brought the service of the Bureau up to the point necessary for meeting adequately the increased demands, and by his vigilance and sagacity was able to thwart the designs of the thieves who sought to profit by the new situation. There were no complaints about him except those which came from the baffled swindlers, and from the politicians who wanted the place as a reward for political service. Colonel Dudley had been of great service in helping Dorsey to carry Indiana for Garfield. There was some doubt whether, as the organizer of the "soldier vote," he had not accomplished as much as Dorsey had with his "soap." Gar-

field resisted for a while, but finally succumbed, and, having removed Mr. Bentley for no cause, put Colonel Dudley in his place.

In September last, when the Blaine campaign was dragging heavily in the West, Mr. Dudley handed in his resignation, to take effect not immediately but on November 10, and started for Ohio. For two months he devoted all his time to organizing the "soldier vote" in Ohio and Indiana for Blaine, drawing pay from the Government at the same time at the rate of \$5,000 a year. His operations in both States were unblushingly disgraceful, being nothing less than the use of the Pension Bureau, with all its power and influence, as a bribe for votes. It was openly announced that pensioners who voted for Blaine would be given precedence in having their claims heard at Washington, and with this announcement there was spread the naturally following intimation that a pensioner who voted against the Republican candidate would have to wait a long time for a hearing on his claim.

In fact, Garfield took the Pension Bureau out of civil-service reform control and put it into "politics." The immediate result is an increase in its cost to the people from a half million to nearly three millions a year, within less than three years. It is very evident from these figures that Dudley "used it for all it was worth," and it is easy to understand now why he was considered so useful a man. We have no idea that the full extent of his usefulness has yet been revealed. There is more to come in this as well as in other departments of the service.

The Pension Bureau was really a victim of the modern Republican plan of electing a President by "carrying Indiana." To this plan we owe some of the worst of our political scandals. The first sacrifice was the Post-office Department, which was given over to Tyner and Brady, primarily to "carry Indiana" for Grant. After they had used it for that successfully they began to use it for other purposes, and the gradual growth of the Star-route Ring was easy and natural. When Indiana had been carried for Garfield, another claim was established for the Pension Bureau, and was recognized. The October election in Indiana having been abolished, as well as the Star-route Ring, the "carrying" machinery, with Dudley at its head, was shifted to Ohio last year, and the result was a triumph even as it had been in Indiana. If the October triumph had been followed by a similar one in the nation in November, who can number the claims for service rendered which would have been filed, or tell how many other departments would have been given over to "politics" to pay them? Dudley is out of office now, and he as well as all other claimants has no hope of recognition. Before another Presidential election comes, the date of the Ohio election ought to be changed to November, and then the carrying business will be at an end forever.

"FREEDOM OF WORSHIP."

THE contention of the Catholics in the matter of the Freedom of Worship Bill now before the New York Legislature, that permission to them to give religious instruction to the inmates

of the House of Refuge is of no value as long as they are not allowed to celebrate mass, is very plausible on its face. They say, and we believe truly from the theological point of view, that there is no Catholic "worship" but the sacrifice of the mass, and they maintain now that if young criminals are cut off from this, they are cut off from the one great means of religious edification.

But this argument must be taken with much allowance. It would be far more effective with Protestants but for the policy pursued for ages by the Catholic Church, of claiming everything, but in case of necessity taking what she can get. Nothing has been more clearly laid down by Catholic theologians than that it is the duty of the civil power to suppress heresy; and whenever the civil power has been won over to this view, they have insisted on its either extirpating heretics wholly, or obliging them to live without public worship, or obliging them to conduct their worship under considerable restrictions as to publicity and locality. In fact, the policy of the Church in every country has been to get from the Government all the intolerance of other creeds which she could, but to accept the inevitable diminutions in the amount of this intolerance. The equality of all creeds before the law she only accepts in countries in which there is no chance of anything else, but this toleration was denounced so late as 1864 by Pius IX. in the Syllabus as a damnable error. In Rome public Protestant worship was never permitted within the walls until the downfall of the temporal Power, and was never permitted anywhere in the Papal States without many restrictions. Within the past year Leo XIII. has complained bitterly of the freedom of worship now enjoyed within the city, as an insult to the Papacy and a hindrance to him in the discharge of his high functions. In the Mortara case Pius IX., so late as 1858, used the physical force at his command to deprive Jewish parents of the control of a child of tender years, and to bring him up in the Catholic faith against their will, simply because some zealous Catholic had baptized him on the sly, if we may use the expression.

We mention these things now, not by way of passing any judgment on them, but by way of showing that the rules of equality for all creeds before the law do not really bring the Catholic clergy face to face with what is called a "non possumus." They adapt themselves to any situation as soon as it is shown to be inevitable. In England and the United States they accept the régime of equality with absolute resignation. In France and Italy they accept it with much murmuring and indignation; in Belgium and Spain they kick against it almost with violence. This, we admit, furnishes no excuse to Protestants for withholding from them anything short of equality, but it does furnish a strong defence for examining their complaints about equality in a very critical spirit. It has been shown by abundant experience in the modern world that the Church knows how to adapt her discipline and services to the peculiarities of countries in which Protestants are in a great majority. It is not true, as a matter of fact, that she considers no religious worship or instruction of any value without the celebration of the

mass. There is provision in the Church discipline for the vast body of Catholics, who are every year, all over the world, by land and sea, cut off for months together from the services of a priest. Catholic soldiers, sailors, travellers, criminals, in regions where there are no Catholic priests, or which priests visit only rarely, are enabled by processes which it is not our province to describe, to keep their religious faith and expectations undamaged by prolonged deprivation of the most solemn services of their denomination.

Public processions of Catholic clergy through the streets carrying the Host, and compelling the outward adoration of all the spectators of whatever creed, were considered necessary in our own time in many States of Italy, and are to-day in Spain. They were considered necessary in every country in Continental Europe as long as the Government would permit them. They have been given up everywhere solely under legal prohibition, and the legal prohibition has been based on the sound doctrine of modern politics, that no religious sect shall be allowed, on any common ground, or in any public place, to conduct its worship in such a way as to offend the prejudices or inflame the passions of persons belonging to other sects.

The management of criminals, and especially youthful criminals, is common ground. In a Protestant country Protestant prejudices do furnish a reasonable and fair limit to Catholic pretensions. This has been conspicuously acknowledged in our public-school system. It is not intolerance to prohibit sectarian instruction within the schools, or to forbid either the sacrifice of the mass or any other religious service within school walls. Adult criminals have chosen their faith, and it is but right to provide the means within prison walls of their public worship. Criminal children have not chosen it, and the faith of the parents of such children is rarely ascertainable. The children are in fact in the condition of heathen, deprived of their liberty, and ready, if their custodians will permit it, to be scrambled for by a large body of rival missionaries. It would be unseemly to the point of scandal for their custodians to permit such a scramble, or to expose them to the competition of rival forms of worship. But it would be worse than unseemly to prevent their being instructed in the doctrines of any recognized Christian denomination to which their parents belong, or for which they themselves profess an intelligent preference. The compromise between the claims of order and the claims of religion, between what Protestants consider expedient and fair, and Catholics consider their due, which the managers of the House of Refuge have hit upon, is the best within reach. The sole objection to it which is worth considering is the Catholic contention that the Church accepts no compromises, and can make no provision for the acceptance in civil society of anything less than her rights. But this, as we have said, has no support from experience. No church has compromised so much, or put up with such immense deprivations of authority.

THE SUDAN NEWS.

GORDON's letters from Khartum have now been published in a Blue Book, and show that

he did not, as was reported, express confidence in his own ability to hold out indefinitely. On the 4th of November he wrote to Wolseley that he could hold out "with ease" for forty days, or till, say, the end of the year, but that after that it would be "difficult." As a matter of fact, he held out nearly twice as long, and did not after all succumb to famine. There appears every reason to believe that Farag Pasha had long been under agreement to betray him whenever the English got near the place. The tone of the letters, if we may judge from the extracts which have reached us, is querulous, and, considering that he was in the military service of the Government, highly insubordinate. He declines to consider the expedition as sent for his own rescue, but for that of the garrison, and this rescue he pronounces unhesitatingly the duty of the Government. Neglect of it he considers disgraceful, but nevertheless charges the Ministry with it.

His military counsels are not less singular than his political ones. He advises the relief expedition to follow the right bank of the Nile round the immense curve from Wady Halfa to Berber, a march of 700 or 800 miles, "in the hope of surprising Berber." Another piece of warning is still more curious: "Don't let rumors of your approach spread," as if the advance had not been watched by hundreds of eyes for weeks and weeks, and doubtless reported every day to the Mahdi. In fact, the letters only confirm the impression which has been entertained for months by every Englishman who knew Gordon, that the first and great mistake of the Ministry, and indeed the only one, was sending him out single-handed, as a knight-errant, without even a shadow of authority. They ought not to have incurred even the appearance of responsibility for him. He had, ever since he took service with the Chinese in 1862, acted solely under his own inspirations. Both in China, and afterward in the Sudan, he was practically his own master, and defined his own policy, and was, strictly speaking, accountable to nobody. He had consequently long lost the habit of obedience and subordination. He was doubtless a good man to send on any military or semi-military mission in which he had to trust to his own resources, for his resources were wonderful; but to send him anywhere with power to draw on the British treasury and army would have been an immense blunder.

This blunder, it is but justice to the Ministry to say, they did not commit. They warned Gordon emphatically that they were not to be considered responsible for him if his mission as a sort of counter-prophet did not succeed. But the English public knew nothing of this. They saw that the Government had taken charge of the Egyptian army and finances, and had put a veto on any further Egyptian efforts to reconquer the Sudan, and they therefore not unnaturally assumed that Gordon had been sent out as the forerunner of some independent British attempt in the same direction. This impression was allowed to spread and grow deeper all through the spring. Gordon was not, as he ought to have been, publicly and peremptorily ordered to quit Khartum while the way was

still open. He was, on the contrary, for all the public could see, allowed to remain there as the agent of the Government, to get along without help if possible, but to receive help if it became necessary. In the meantime his heroism was growing steadily in the popular imagination until he at last came to represent English honor and prestige in the middle of the desert, against a horde of savages. The result was, that when the expedition was sent, it had all the effect of a confirmation of the popular delusion, and of a condonation of Gordon's folly and disobedience. To crown all, Gordon's heroic death has now put it out of the power of the Ministry to tell the truth about him without seeming harsh and unfeeling.

Severer punishment for what seemed a slight blunder probably no government has ever received. In the first place, there is evidently going to be some difficulty in extricating the advanced detachments under Buller and Brackenbury. Buller, who is at the Abu-Klea Wells, only a few miles on his return march to Korti, probably owes his safety thus far to that curious feature of desert warfare which makes it impossible to besiege a force that has possession of the wells, inasmuch as the besiegers, too, must drink. But the supply of water at Abu-Klea is scanty and nearly exhausted, and the camels are dying rapidly. Buller cannot move without a fresh supply of animals, and it is in moving that his danger will begin; for the Mahdi may attack him in great force on his way to Gakdul, which is the next stage. Still, the Mahdi will, of course, find it as difficult to keep a large force afoot in the desert as the British. Food can be carried by men as abstemious as the Arabs in small compass, but water cannot, and no large force of men of any race can in those regions do much more than hurry from well to well. In fact, this is what the best provided caravan or single traveller has to do.

In the present—what we must consider—half-crazed condition of the English mind, it is impossible, of course, to say how far the Sudan folly may be carried. But at this writing it really seems likely, although the Government sticks to its resolve not to try to obtain or retain possession of the Sudan, that a railroad will be built, at a cost of \$15,000,000, from Suakim to Berber simply to enable the British troops to "smash the Mahdi" next fall. The cost of a complete and effective "smash," in fact, can hardly be put down at less than \$200,000,000, and this at a moment when vast bodies of unemployed poor in all parts of the kingdom are either eating up the savings of former years or throwing themselves on public charity. We cannot help feeling, however, that the prolonged pause which the climate of the Upper Nile makes necessary, will do something to restore sanity to the British people, and that the view of the Radicals, to which Mr. John Morley gave utterance in the House of Commons on Monday night, that the proper course to pursue with regard to the Sudan is to evacuate it, will in the meantime gain ground. The fear that the effect of such a step would be injurious to British prestige in India is probably the most absurd of the Jingo bugbears. If the Indian

Mussulmans have not learned for themselves from the events of the last hundred years in India, the potency of British arms, and the unconquerableness of British hate and courage when once fairly roused, it makes little difference, as far as they are concerned, what happens to British troops in other parts of the world.

LABORERS' INSURANCE IN GERMANY.

THE text of the German law of July 6, 1884, for the insurance of workmen against accidents lies before us; a law of so remarkable a character that one wonders at the little attention which it has received outside of Germany. Like its predecessor, the act of 1883 for the insurance of workmen against sickness, it is a result of the "Socialistic" policy which Prince Bismarck has adopted, and which has the support of the largest and most influential body of German economists. We have heard much of the principle of state interference, and of its adoption in Germany; but the details of its application have received little attention in this country. It is worth while to point them out in these insurance acts, which must strike every one who has been accustomed to the Anglo-Saxon method of handling social problems as most extraordinary pieces of legislation.

The act for insurance against accidents provides that all workmen employed in factories, mines, quarries, and the building trades, whose pay does not exceed \$500 a year, are to be insured. The clauses describing the insured persons are sweeping, and the only great classes excepted from the operation of the act are ordinary day laborers and agricultural laborers, the latter being an exception which doubtless has a connection with Bismarck's reliance on the landed proprietors of the country districts for political support. Every one of the workmen reached by the act is declared to be entitled, in case of accident, to the costs of his cure and restoration to health. In case of complete disablement, he is to have a pension of two-thirds of the wages earned by him during the year preceding the accident. In case of death, his widow, and children, and dependent parents are to have a pension not to exceed 60 per cent. of his previous wages, so that the act includes a life-insurance provision. It is immaterial how great may have been the carelessness or recklessness of the insured; the only case in which he or his representatives have no claim to compensation is when he has intentionally brought about the accident.

The person who is to pay for this liberal compensation to the injured workman is not the workman himself, not the State that enacts the law, not the local Government, but the employer. All employers whose workmen come within the scope of the act are required to form unions or associations; if they do not do it for themselves, a Government Bureau comes in and organizes the unions over their heads. All establishments from the same or allied branches of trade in a given district are to be united in this way. They are to settle the amount of the premiums to be paid by each employer, in proportion to the number of persons he employs and the danger of his establishment; and they are empowered to enforce

precautions against accidents. Every employer is made *ipso facto* a member of the union for his trade and district. The associations elect their own officers. With them are joined elected delegates from the workmen for the arbitration of disputes. A Government insurance bureau is established (this hardly requires to be said in Germany) which supervises and enforces the whole arrangement.

A very similar measure, but of not quite so drastic a character, was the act of 1883 for insurance against sickness. By this, also, insurance is made compulsory; that is, irrespective of any volition or action of the insured. The sick workman is given free medicine and medical treatment, and, so long as he is too sick to work, one-half the wages of ordinary laborers. If the sickness is the result of drunkenness or immorality, or is intentionally brought on, aid may be refused. The payment comes ordinarily from the local Government bodies, the communes. There are permitted certain methods of establishing it through associations of a voluntary character; but normally the local bodies pay the insurance. They levy for this purpose a tax of not more than 2 per cent. on the wages of the insured; if the proceeds of the 2 per cent. do not suffice to yield what the act gives to the workmen, then the excess must be borne by the town out of its general revenue. The tax is collected from the employers, who are authorized to deduct two-thirds of it from the wages of the workmen; the remaining third they must pay out of their own pockets. This Sick Insurance Act and the Accident Insurance Act of 1884 are made to work together, by providing that if a workman becomes injured by an accident, he is to receive his insurance money in the first instance from the sick-insurance fund (*i. e.*, from the town), and this fund is then repaid by the accident-insurance fund (*i. e.*, by the employers' union).

This sort of legislation may suit Germany; it may be possible to carry out its provisions with German habits of Government superintendence and police, and no one would deny that its object is most praiseworthy, so far, at least, as appears on the surface of the act. But it is completely alien to our manner of approaching social problems. It is evidently not insurance at all. It is not making voluntarily a prudent provision for possible misfortune in the future. It is a vast extension of the poor-law principle—of the principle that those who are not able to take care of themselves are to be taken care of by the public at large. Moreover, it is the poor-law principle applied without those precautions against abuse and demoralization of which the necessity has been dinned into our ears during the last half-century. Apart from the proviso that intentional injury and illness resulting from drunkenness or immorality are to be excluded from the insured contingencies, there is no precaution against recklessness, ignorance, shamming, and cheating, and no stimulus to independence and self-help. When one considers the moral and intellectual state of the average manual workman, it is clear that the assurance of half-pay during any disability will make disability far from a great calamity. Being sick and idle on half-pay is not a bad piece of luck.

One may venture to doubt whether even German administration and German police will be able to set aside with a stern hand the cases of pretended sickness and intentional injury. On the other hand, the most powerful incentives to prudence, and temperance, and saving habits are evidently taken away by making prudence and saving unnecessary. For those who believe, as most English-speaking people do, that the only deep-reaching method of bettering the condition of the laboring classes is the raising of the standard of prudence, of morality, of independence, and of intelligence among the laborers themselves, the German method must seem radically false. Insurance against sickness and accident is undoubtedly a most desirable thing, and the community should do all that it wisely can do for its encouragement. But the encouragement should come rather in the way of legalizing and regulating that voluntary form of relief which trades-unions in England and benefit associations in this country have applied on so large a scale, than in imposing on one class in the community the burden of looking after another.

It is characteristic of the policy by which Bismarck is trying to win the Social-Democrats to his side, that the money for insuring the laborers is raised in both these acts from their employers. In the Accident-Insurance Act they are to pay the whole fund out of their own pockets; in the Sick-Insurance Act they are to do the same, but may deduct two-thirds of the payment from the wages of their laborers. Of course, whether the law says so or not, the money will, as a general thing, come out of the wages of the laborers anyhow. The tendency will be for employers to deduct the insurance payments out of the current wages of their employees. So far as this is done, the process amounts to taking part of his earnings from the workman at one time for the purpose of providing for him at another; a process to which there can be no particular objection, when once the principle of self help is abandoned. But a tendency of this kind, like every attempt to throw off an indirect tax from the first payer and to charge it to somebody else, is one which is not at all certain to be carried into universal effect. The force of habit, the resistance to innovation, those influences which economists sometimes call economic friction, will stand in the way. It is pretty certain that in some cases the insurance tax will really come out of the pockets of the employers themselves; in others it will be added to the price of the goods they make—that is, will be paid by the consumers. In such cases there will be the result of one set of people being provided against illness and misfortune, not by the community at large, but by another set of people—a result hardly consistent with those principles of economic "justice" which are supposed to underlie the schemes of Socialistic legislation.

THE TROUBLES OF ENGLAND.

LONDON, February 9.

SEVERAL times during the last few years one has heard people in England wishing that so many events did not happen. Generally speaking, men relish excitement in this hot and hurried world of modern Europe. It is not only the

newspapers that live by and upon news, but no small part of our city populations, who find it hard to realize what existence was like two centuries ago, or is even now in quiet country nooks with one delivery of letters in the day and no telegraph office. Yet latterly those who watch public affairs seem to feel that they have too much excitement, that events come too thick, and tread too fast upon the heels of those that have gone before; they begin to appreciate the saying that happy is the nation which has no history. They wish for more time to think about things; to comprehend and see how to face the new problems which are perpetually appearing and passing swiftly from one phase to another.

England has been in perpetual unrest, throbbing and quivering with effort and passion, ever since 1876, when the revival of the Eastern question not only dragged us back into the whirlpool of general European politics, but, by the bitterness which it added to party feeling, made our domestic contests hotter and perhaps even less scrupulous than they had been before. No part of this period, not even the Irish crisis of 1880-81, has been so exciting and troubled as the last six months. The constitutional crisis between the House of Lords and the House of Commons occupied the autumn, and revealed the hatred which had been silently accumulated against the Peers; and when the deadlock had been disposed of by the compromise between the Liberal and Tory leaders, men's eyes were opened to see that a revolution had been accomplished which definitely stamps Britain as a democratic country. There was some satisfaction felt at the peaceful way and conciliatory spirit in which this revolution had been effected. But this was soon dashed by the foreign and colonial difficulties thickening round us. The Egyptian problem seemed more insoluble than ever, and the Ministry more puzzled than ever how to deal with it. The unfriendly, not to call it hostile, attitude of Germany could no longer be denied when Bismarck was seen trying to pick quarrels with us all over the world. The jealous desire of France to embarrass us in Egypt became more evident, and suspicions were roused as to her designs on Siam and Burmah. We found Russia making trouble over the question of the boundaries of Afghanistan. And in the middle of these vexations came first the dynamite explosions of January 31, and now on February 4 the news of the fall of Khartum, the death or captivity of Gordon, the peril of our little army scattered here and there over the deserts of the Upper Nile. Seldom has a modern state found itself pressed and distracted at the same moment by more anxieties. We have realized more clearly perhaps than ever before how unique is the position of England and her empire, whose nerves, so to speak, so stretch themselves over the whole globe, that they can feel pain and danger and the need for action in so many points at once that the central brain is scarcely able to meet by thought and will all the demands that crowd upon it.

My task is not to describe these anxieties, but only to attempt to tell you how our people take them, what are the first emotions and views which they evoke.

Although we had got pretty well accustomed to dynamite, the sensation caused by these latest attempts to destroy life and property was deeper than on any previous occasion. The mischief wrought was greater. It was wrought simultaneously in three spots. There was more audacity shown in striking at the Tower and the House of Commons than in the stupid and cowardly device of leaving infernal machines in the cloak-rooms of railway stations, or dropping them out of the windows of cars on the underground railway. It looked as if the conspirators were gain-

ing experience and confidence, while becoming even more reckless as to the consequences upon human life. Hence the thing has been taken more seriously than on previous occasions. Then the dominant impression was one of surprise, and though there was indignation, it was mixed with amusement. The idea of frightening England by letting off gigantic squibs seemed so ludicrous that we should have been ashamed to be frightened. Now, although there has been no panic, and even less excitement than you might fancy from the newspapers, in whose thermometer the mercury stands always some degrees higher than it does in the nation generally, there is little amusement, but rather a deep, quiet anger which might easily break out into lynchings of persons suspected, or even into demonstrations against the Irish. London is such a huge, inorganic place, where no man knows his neighbor, and the Irish are not distinguishable from the rest of the people, that such demonstrations are unlikely in it. But in Lancashire there has always been some ill-feeling between Irish and English working people, and had the explosions taken place there, the results might have been serious for the former. As it is, we hear of Irish workmen being here and there dismissed, here and there refused employment—regrettable incidents, but such as must be expected when in Irish meetings voices are raised in approval of the dynamite party. Of results on the ordinary intercourse of Englishmen and Irishmen, one sees nothing in the middle and upper classes, because the Irishmen who belong to those classes are usually Protestants, and more hostile to the Nationalist party than any Englishman. But in the humbler classes there must be a good deal of friction.

An Irish acquaintance of mine had been in the habit of talking occasionally with the police constable of his district, who was an Irish Protestant from Ulster. A few days after the explosions, as he bade the constable good morning in passing down the street, the latter asked him whether things were not made disagreeable for him as an Irishman. Somewhat surprised, my acquaintance inquired what the constable meant. "Well, sir," was the answer, "perhaps it is different in your rank of life, where persons are more polite, but they make it very annoying for me; they are always worrying at me because I am an Irishman; and then, sir, they are so ignorant. They don't know the difference between an Irish Papist and an Orangeman." In those ranks of life where persons are not polite, and where events like the dynamite attempts engross the thoughts and tongues of the people, Irishmen must have had much to put up with, and the relations of the two races will become more strained than ever. Great vigilance is now observed all over London. Not merely are the public buildings guarded, but one seems to see a far larger number of police everywhere, and these police constantly on the alert, observing everybody who loiters, and particularly those carrying handbags or paper parcels. We rub our eyes and ask ourselves whether we are in London and in the nineteenth century; yet of course opinion approves all possible vigilance, and everybody is willing to coöperate. There has never been anything that can be called alarm in the public at large—London is far too big for that; but there has certainly been a more serious view of the position than there was before, and a painful sense that what the Irish revolutionaries attempt now may hereafter be attempted by revolutionaries of other kinds, and may encourage the Anarchists of the Continent to play the same game in Germany or France.

As regards the political problem of Irish disaffection, these outrages will hardly affect its solution one way or the other. Although Mr. Parnell has been much censured for his silence on the subject, all sensible men know that he and

his immediate allies are hindered and embarrassed by such conduct, and have all along found in the extreme faction one of their chief difficulties and dangers. There are persons in England who feel more inclined after each fresh proof of Irish implacability to wish that we had done with Ireland altogether. There are other persons who draw the conclusion that more repression is needed—martial law and the suppression of Parliamentary representation—and who charge the dynamite outrages on Mr. Gladstone's policy of conciliation. But the great majority feel that it would be unworthy of England to let her policy be deflected either way by the acts of a knot of conspirators, and unjust to charge their ferocity on the bulk of the Irish nation. The question of renewing the Crimes Act, and of extending either local self-government or any form of Home Rule, will apparently be dealt with just as if these explosions had not taken place.

Much satisfaction was felt, even more than was publicly expressed, at the sentiment evoked in America by the news of the explosions. Anything which legislation can do there to prevent the advocacy of these crimes or the collection of subscriptions for them will be deemed helpful, but it is believed that the acts themselves are frequently planned from Paris, which affords a nearer and easier base of operations.

The excitement caused by the dynamite affair would probably have been greater had not two other things happened at the same time to divert attention from it. The one was the series of speeches, sketching out a bold programme of social change, by which Mr. Chamberlain has startled the more moderate section of the Liberal party. The other was the march of General Stewart across the Bayuda desert with the battles of Abu-Klea and Gubat. Now upon these there has come the tidings of the fall of Khartum, which of course throws all else into the shade, because it involves the safety of the detachments of Lord Wolseley's army, and the question of further military operations which may last for many months and involve a vast expenditure of money.

The first impression of the news was of regret at the fate (for it was and is still generally supposed that he has perished) of Gordon. His striking character and the long defence of Khartum, which he has held by the mere force of his presence, have profoundly affected the people, always more attracted by persons than by causes or policies. Even those who thought him wild and odd, and who blamed the Ministry for sending him, could not refuse their admiration to his chivalrous daring and unselfishness. The next feeling was of anxiety for the army, and especially for the small bodies under Stewart and Wilson. This would have been greater but for the belief, deeply rooted in the English mind, that the most insignificant body of English troops can defend itself against any odds of uncivilized enemies. Many as have been the perils which our forces have had to encounter during this century, there have been only three instances within the memory of living men in which a detachment has been overpowered—the catastrophe of the first Afghan war in 1842, the fight at Isandlana against the Zulus, and the slaughter at Cawnpore in 1857. In the first instance there was treachery, in the two others surprise, so that the belief is sustained that where the danger is foreseen our troops can always resist it. The way in which so many tremendous perils were escaped from or surmounted during the Indian mutiny has confirmed our faith in English invincibility, and may, perhaps, some day involve us in worse troubles. We are always despising our enemies, and running risks which the judgment of Continental soldiers condemns.

Next after these two feelings came that of per-

plexity as to what should be done—whether we should stand still, on the defensive, or move forward on Khartum, or retire on Upper Egypt. Such perplexity is the greater because our people have never liked the expedition nor quite understood its object. To rescue Gordon was the obvious aim; but, supposing him rescued, nobody knew what else ought to be done, nor what arrangements should be made for the future of the country. There has seldom been an instance in recent times in which public opinion has been so utterly at sea as through the whole of these Egyptian and Sudan troubles, everybody admitting that he had no light to give, and vainly hoping that it would be revealed from some other quarter. In such cases, the usual course is to trust the Executive, assuming that as it has more knowledge, it is fitter to judge than the people can be. But unhappily public confidence in the Executive has upon foreign questions been seriously shaken. They sent Gordon out a year ago with no definite idea as to what he was to do, or as to what they would do if he failed to pacify the country. They fought battles at Suakim for which they have never been able to assign a sufficient motive, and which have had no useful result. They decided late in July last on an expedition to rescue Gordon, which ought, as events have shown, to have been undertaken at least two months earlier. Hence that faith which the Liberals have given so largely to their leaders, and which moderate men of all parties are disposed to give to the Ministers of the Crown, is now confined to domestic questions, and the unspoken anxiety of the more thoughtful part of the community is greater than the present state of matters warrants. It extends to the whole international position of England, and it is all the more serious because few persons, even in the Tory ranks, believe that such Tory leaders as Lord Salisbury, Sir S. Northcote, and Lord Randolph Churchill are likely to steer the ship more prudently or skilfully than their antagonists have done. I do not say that this harsh judgment is justified, but merely note the fact.

Whether the Government will survive the shock which these misfortunes have given to its authority, whether the bulk of its party will approve the resolution it is said to have taken, to continue the war and recapture Khartum, are questions which it is useless to discuss at this stage, before the opinion of the nation has had time to crystallize. The position of the Cabinet is insecure, but there are obvious objections to a change of Ministry at a moment when vigor and despatch are needed, and the Tory party may be unwilling to take office so shortly before a general election. They have a great opportunity of assuming a dignified and patriotic attitude, but they have seldom known of late years how to use their opportunities. It will not be surprising if, when the first desire to display the strength of England has passed, many voices are raised against continuing a struggle in the Sudan which the Government themselves condemned, and from which they do not expect any substantial profit. Those who know India best make light of the idea that a reverse on this side the Red Sea will shake our military hold on that country; and those who have visited the Sudan represent it as anything but a desirable acquisition. Y.

HOLLINGBURY COPSE AND ITS SHAKESPERIANA.

BRIGHTON, February.

"Come hither, come hither, come hither;
Here shall you see no enemy
But winter and rough weather!"

THESE lines from a song in "As You Like It" (Act. IV., scene 5) are written in black-letter on the cornice of the house of Halliwell-Phillips, at

Hollingbury Copse. They stretch from end to end of its front, and so seem a more cordial greeting. Some eight years ago this famous Shaksperian, coming down to Brighton for a brief rustication, concluded to make it his country home. For this purpose, purchasing thirteen acres north-west of the city, on a hill so high and steep that it was scarcely inhabited at all, he built a shanty that would serve him for keeping a bachelor's or rather widower's hall. He soon added other rooms—some of them cased with iron and equipped with fire-proof vaults for the storage and safe-keeping of his idols, as Shaksperian curios may be fitly styled. Marrying a Brighton lady, he expanded his establishment in every direction, but built it nowhere more than one story in height. No room has a ceiling. Above every one you see the rafters running up to the ridge. The roof and wainscot are varnished but not painted. The whole pile is an excellent specimen of a building that has grown, as Paley says of the British Constitution, rather than been made to order.

The grounds are shut in by a wall of masonry ten feet high, or, where the view would be thus obstructed, by a fence of open iron work no less difficult to scale. The gates are two, an outer and an inner. At the outer there is a notice, "No dog admitted," and the porter's orders are not to unbar the inner gate till all dogs have been barred outside of the outer. The copse which gives name to the place is on the highest ground, and consists in a sort of jungle of underwood, largely evergreen, threaded with labyrinthine paths. Here and there from a bower one can command an outlook over Brighton, the Channel, as well as chalk cliffs east and west, for the altitude is 460 feet above the sea-level. On this south shore, the Italian Riviera of England, the fields, where not freshly ploughed, are green with grass and grain at the end of November. At this season, too, the tilth, or ploughed ground, is white with the stone harvests. The stones, worth \$2 a load, are an unfailing crop, and, in the judgment of those who to-day gather them, *grow*, though an outsider would trace them to frost or subsoil ploughs. Next to the copse, the most conspicuous object in the grounds is a spacious and stone-curbed fish-pond.

Within the walls of the house, which Mr. Philipps, aware of its oddity, calls sometimes a bungalow and sometimes a wigwam, there are corridors leading, or rather misleading, strangers from one quarter to another. On their walls you read their names, such as *Wolsey's Walk*, *Dogberry's Lane*, *Romeo's Ramble*, but you do not thus learn their nature or purpose. Over the dining-room fireplace hangs a picture of *Portia* disguised as a judge, and just disclosing to *Shylock* the "true inwardness" of his bond. But the supreme interest of this English interior centres in the Study, or treasury of Shaksperiana, which is separated from the rest of the mansion by doors of iron. Along one side of its antechamber stretches what Mr. Philipps has named the "book bin." Every afternoon his habit is to look over a score of books, cut out of each the fractions he can use, and throw the rest as refuse into his mammoth waste-basket. The legend over the study door is the words of the witch when Macbeth sought entrance to her cave (Act IV., scene 1), "Open, locks, whoever knocks!" Classical quotation, said Dr. Johnson, is the parole of scholars the world over. Shaksperian quotation is now becoming preëminently that sort of parole, and nowhere more than at Hollingbury Copse. American Shaksperians are there sure of a double welcome, partly as pilgrims from a far country, but chiefly because, in the opinion of Mr. Philipps, his labors were appreciated in the United States sooner than in his own country.

His Shaksperian working library is mainly at

his house in the London suburb of Brompton, while the rarities, or, as a German would say, the *Schenswürdigkeiten*, glorify Hollingbury Copse. But things "worth seeing" just because they are to be seen rather than heard of, are hardest, or rather impossible, to describe. Mr. Philipps has printed, but not published, a hand-list of ten hundred and ninety-three drawings and engravings illustrative of the life of Shakspeare, which he has accumulated. In obtaining a portion of them he was himself busy, aided by an accomplished draughtsman, for six years. On showing these delectables to the writer he unweariedly turned over portfolios all a long morning, and guided him to the salient points of interest in the representations of every morsel that could be found in England contemporary with Shakspeare, on the routes where he travelled and in the places where he lived—notably, the arches of triumph in London under which there is "authentic record evidence that Shakspeare passed in the procession of March 15, 1604"; the earliest engraved view known to exist of the church where Shakspeare is interred; the earliest plan of Windsor Park in which Herne's oak is noticed; a view of Stratford College as it appeared when Shakspeare was a scholar there; and the Avon Bridge as his childish eyes first looked upon its arches.

But the gem of the collection, in the eyes of its owner, and, I think, in the mind of every visitor, is the portrait of Shakspeare by Droeshout, dating from 1623, in its original proof, before it was altered into the vitiated form in which it has been so long familiar to the public. "Here," said he, "we have the most reliable likeness in existence of the dramatist, the only one that has not been tampered with, while the evidences of its genuineness and its antiquity are incontestable. It is of such extreme rarity that it is the only copy which has as yet been discovered." Mr. Philipps demonstrated the superiority of this likeness, holding up beside it one of the best of more modern copies. In the shading of the collar, the arch under one eye, the hair, moustache, and muscles of the mouth, the difference, when once pointed out, was palpable.

Among printed rarities, the first folio of 1623, in excellent preservation, was about the largest to my eye. But a special pet with Mr. Philipps is "Love's Labor Lost," the thin quarto pamphlet of 1598—so far as known, the *editio princeps*, not only of that play, but of any Shaksperian play. He was so fortunate as to secure this relic for £60, but would not part with it for ten times as much. It is, in truth, a long time since Mr. Philipps has lost his grip on anything Shaksperian that has fallen in his way. "It is his plan to lose no part of that immortal man." Of two things in his career Mr. Philipps said that he repeated every day. One was, that while poor he had sold certain Shaksperian jewels. The other was, that he had not travelled while he was young. About 1854 he had visited Lucerne and reached the crest of the St. Gothard pass; but during the last generation he has scarcely been out of England. As his age is now only sixty-five, he would not seem at present too old to view abroad the wonders of the world. But to his mind travel is travail and exile. His reluctance to leave home may be intensified unawares by his zeal in Shaksperian research, which never flags. His discoveries in 1873 were great, in 1884 far less, yet sufficient to encourage labors for more. His investigations just now are in that long-explored, but still exhaustless, mine, the New Record Office in Fetter Lane.

Possessing an ample fortune, thanks to marriage with the daughter of Sir Thomas Philipps, whose name he adds to his own patronymic Halliwell, he is able to pay a fabulous price for any trifle which will supply a missing link in his chain of Shaksperian mirabilia. He complains,

however, that he hears sometimes of such a none-such and bids high for it by telegram, only to find that his order has arrived too late. His copy of Lilly's Latin grammar, in an edition which Shakspeare must have studied, led me to remark that one might, perhaps, espy in that work where the dramatist "of small Latin" got some of his quotations; and that such a search would be easy with the help of the list of "Sentences taken from foreign languages" at the end of Schmidt's 'Lexicon.' Mr. Philipps was pleased with the suggestion, but said he did not know of the list, and was even utterly unacquainted with the work of Schmidt, which in America, at least, has become the vade-mecum of every student. He said he would buy the 'Lexicon' at once—for the quotation-list; evidently sharing Mr. Grant White's notion that no foreigner can fight up for us the vocabulary of our dramatic bard.

Mr. Philipps takes frequent walks to Brighton and back—three miles each way. He begins study at half-past five even in winter mornings, but never studies after his lunch, which he takes before two o'clock. Although he has written more about Shakspeare than any living man, he declares himself unable to repeat from memory ten consecutive lines of any play. When asked how he would dispose of the illustrative matter on Shakspeare which he had been gleaming and hiving through so many studious and active years, he answered that he had long thought on that subject, and that the longer he thought the more he felt at a loss what to do. Some patriotic impulse prompted me to urge him that he bequeath his jewels to America—that utmost corner of the West where the majority of those who speak the tongue of Shakspeare are already resident, where that majority daily grows, and where all helps to the appreciation of that prince of dramatists will accordingly do the most good. The proposition struck him as equally new and startling, but he promised he would take it into consideration. As Smithson's half million could nowhere in the Old World have been such a power for good as it has proved in the New, so, I believe, would be the good fortune of the Shaksperian treasure-trove of Philipps. We'd set it in a shower of gold and rain rich pearls upon it.

J. D. B.

Correspondence.

A MUSEUM OF CASTS

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the very able articles published in the *Studio* of January 3, I have been particularly struck by one relating to the contemplated formation of a museum of casts and photographs. Allow me to suggest to you my view of the question.

The idea of endowing a city like New York with a collection of original sculptures and paintings by old masters is to be completely put aside. Such a collection, even if millions were spent for it, would never rank equal to the museum of a provincial town in Germany or in France. The masterpieces of the past all now belong, with very few exceptions, to museums, or to very rich families, which will never give them up at any price. There exists in Rome, it is true, a private collection of 400 so-called ancient statues, which the possessor, Torlonia, has the childish hope of selling some day for thirty millions to Russia or to America; but that collection, which you certainly know, is filled with outrageous forgeries. Lady Burdett-Coutts and the Duc d'Aumale are the only persons possessing original pictures by Raphael, and they certainly will never sell them. America is a young country; it was never gov-

erned by kings ready to lavish the people's money for the sake of getting up splendid collections; not having known the drawbacks of monarchism, it must be content not to know its advantages either. But assuredly a great nation has the right and the duty to secure collections capable of educating the people, and giving to those who cannot travel in Europe an adequate idea of the marvels of ancient art.

It is obvious that a collection of casts is the best *succédané* of a gallery of ancient sculptors. We possess in Paris two collections of that kind. The first and oldest one is in the École des Beaux-Arts. It numbers about 3,000 casts, large and small, reproducing all the masterpieces of Greek and Roman art, including the sculptures of Olympia and Pergamos. The second one, recently founded, is in the Palace of the Trocadéro, built in 1878. There you find not only casts of ancient, mediæval, and modern sculptures, but of architectural fragments, such as the Gothic doorways of Chartres, Étampes, and other cathedrals, of mediæval tombs, bass-reliefs, altars, etc. The collection is set up in historical order, and, when completed, will afford a splendid illustration for the study of art from the days of Assos to those of Canova.

But casts can only reproduce the works of sculpture, architecture, and what the Germans call *Kleinkünste*. What of the paintings? Here, I will enter into some detail, because the article in the *Studio* proves to me that the exact state of things in France is not known in America. You know that since Louis XIV. we have had in Rome an Art Institute, the Villa Medici. Every year, a painter, having gained the *Prix de Rome*, which exempts him from military duty, is sent to Rome, where he remains three years. He is obliged, by the rule of the School, to send every year a painting to the French Government; the first year he must send a copy after some masterpiece of Italian art. By means of this clause, the French Government possesses a vast number of excellent copies after all the best paintings of old Italian masters.

Thiers, as you know, was a great art fancier. During fifty years, he had copies painted, in water-color and on a reduced scale, after the best pictures in Rome, Florence, Dresden, etc. He thus contrived to collect about eighty copies, some of which (for instance, those of Raphael's Stanze) are real masterpieces. This collection has just been given by his sister-in-law, Mademoiselle Dosne, to the Louvre, where it forms a most welcome supplement to the collections of original paintings.

When Thiers, in 1871, became President of the Republic, he intrusted Charles Blanc with the direction of the Beaux-Arts, and ordered a *Musée de Copies* to be established in the Palais de l'Industrie. This collection immediately numbered about 200 paintings, belonging to the State and sent in former times by the young painters in Rome. Thiers, in his impatience to see the collection completed, sent a number of young painters to Holland, Italy, and Germany, in order to get copies of the principal pictures owned in those countries. Unfortunately, the painters, being over-hurried and not sufficiently controlled, did their work in a very indifferent manner; and when their pictures came to Paris, there was a general uproar against them. Other painters, who had begged to be sent to Italy or Holland, and who had not been chosen, naturally joined with the enemies of the new museum; and when Thiers was upset on May 24, 1873, a decree followed suppressing the Musée de Copies, and assigning its contents partly to the École des Beaux-Arts (which still possesses the best copies of Italian and Spanish paintings), partly to the provincial museums. Every one now regrets it bitterly, but it would be impossible to resume Thiers's plan, the paint-

ings given to the provincial museums being now their definitive property. The gift of Thiers's personal collection of copies to the Louvre, in 1884, is a slight compensation for the loss of our Musée de Copies.

Now, observe that a good copy of an ancient painting is a comparatively common thing, since we have the means of insuring, by means of photography, the perfect accuracy of the outline. For a good copy for the provincial museums, after a large picture like Raphael's "Holy Family" (about two metres high and one broad), the Government pays 1,500 francs; and with 300,000 francs you could easily get 200 very good copies of the best pictures in the Louvre gallery. But all the museums in Europe together do not possess more than 300 masterpieces of great size, and a museum of copies containing 300 large pictures and 1,500 small ones would be the equivalent of the most splendid gallery in the world. The total cost would certainly not exceed 1,200,000 francs; that is, the price paid by the Museum of Berlin for a single picture of Albert Dürer's, purchased last year from Dürer's family in Nuremberg. Surely America is rich enough to spend 1,200,000 francs for a gallery of paintings, and 200,000 for a large collection of casts.

Such a scheme would certainly be supported by all the real amateurs and by all the young American painters, who would be glad to be sent to Europe in order to procure copies from the most celebrated paintings. The danger would be that they might work too quick and send bad copies; but this could be avoided by appointing in the different towns committees intrusted with the care of examining the copies before they should be sent off. Moreover, there are in Paris and in Italy hundreds of poor painters, especially ladies, who do nothing else but paint copies for the State and for churches; the Louvre is crowded with them. It would be very easy to get excellent copies from them, and they would give particular attention to their work, knowing that one good copy might induce America to order many others from them. This is my idea of the matter; photographs from pictures are a very dull thing, and nothing can give an adequate idea of a Murillo or of a Rubens except a good copy in natural size, or—as in the case of Thiers's collection—a copy in water-color reduced to a smaller scale.

Yours truly,

SALOMON REINACH.

PARIS, January 17, 1885.

[Mr. Reinach, in common with cultivated Europeans generally, is puzzled by the status of the fine arts in this country. We hear continually expressions of wonder why "the United States" does not undertake or purchase this, that, or the other thing, it being a rich and lavish country. It seems like kicking at an open door to say that "a great nation has the right and duty to secure collections capable of educating the people," etc., but the truth is that the United States, though in the ordinary sense of the term a great nation, is merely an immense corporation, whose business is managed by delegates who have no *right* or *duty* other than to administer certain of the affairs of the country as the people direct, and, if it were possible, honestly and economically; and the education of the people is a matter with which the national Government has nothing to do, all questions of that nature devolving on the State governments. And of the State governments, that of Massachusetts has been the only one sufficiently appreciative of the value of art educa-

tion to make a State matter of it, though its attempt at education resulted in establishing the worst system of art instruction ever known (that of South Kensington) as a State system. This was far from encouraging; but, in fact, with our system of complete decentralization, we have even no central State authority capable of regulating and intelligently directing a primary art education. The most we could hope from the Federal Government would be to put the expenditures for the District of Columbia under intelligent control, while exactly the contrary takes place, and when Congress dabbles in the fine arts it is a veritable bull in a china-shop. It cannot even secure us a coinage which is, from the artistic side, respectable, so that the product of our mint is the worst in that respect in the civilized world. Even the Spanish-American States do better. As for the higher branches, a public body capable of encouraging art like that of Clark Mills, Vinnie Ream, etc., should be interdicted by constitutional provision from spending money for works of art.

The State governments are in one respect still more impotent. They have no common locality like Washington under their absolute control, or even charge, to which they can appropriate funds for educational or decorative purposes. They might unquestionably endow State art schools, which must be located somewhere; but the civic jealousies put this practically out of the question, and we are finally thrown back on the city governments. But to any city the expense of a great art institution, in addition to what the city finances already bear (between stealing and legitimate expenditure), is formidable, and in practice where anything has been done it has been by private contributions slightly aided by the municipal authorities. In this way the Boston Art Museum, a most admirable and useful institution, and by far the most complete in the United States, and the Metropolitan Museum of New York, have been organized. But the latter is not, properly speaking, an art but an archaeological museum—its finances have been absorbed in the purchase of collections which have no art-educational value whatever. It has spent \$276,000 for its collection of Dutch pictures and its Cypriot collections, which, whatever their archaeological value, are utterly valueless as art. These acquisitions have strained the present benefaction of that part of the New York public which adheres to the present management, and have absorbed a sum about equal to that which Mr. Reinach mentions as the cost of the entire museum he recommends.

To secure for New York such a museum would be, no doubt, a most desirable thing, and in fact a plan to form one has been under discussion for some time by wealthy citizens, who are willing to contribute to its acquisition if it can be organized in entire independence of the present management of the Metropolitan Museum. We see by a résumé of the report of its Board of Trustees in the *Tribune*, that they contemplate providing their own building and making themselves independent of municipal restrictions. If this should be the case, the carrying out of the new plan becomes easily practicable, if, as would probably be the case, the corporation were willing to transfer the

present buildings to the Museum of Copies.—
ED. NATION.]

THE TRUE CAUSE OF THE HARD TIMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is generally assumed that there is no limit to the extent to which income-producing wealth may be accumulated. This is indeed practically true so far as the accumulation of such wealth by an individual is concerned; but when the possible amount of accumulation of income-producing wealth by the whole world is considered, we find that the problem involves a new element, and that a limit to that amount really exists. The chief kind of income-producing wealth known to modern civilization consists of the machinery or instruments of production and transportation. In other words, the principal way in which men at the present day can so use capital that it will bring them annual returns is by employing it in the creation of such machinery and instruments—by building factories, railroads, steamboats, etc.

These things, however, are not valuable in themselves, but only as they produce or transport articles which are of value because there is a demand for them. If mankind should cease to care for the products of our factories, or for the goods transported by our railroads and steamboats, we could not expect to derive profits from these factories, railroads, or steamboats. If the whole world were like those parts of it where a tropical climate renders shelter and clothing almost superfluous, where food can be obtained without effort, and where the people, having the few necessities of life almost given into their hands, feel little or no desire for anything more, what would be the possibility of income-producing wealth; what the opportunity for the profitable investment of money? If the people of such a world were desirous of acquiring income-producing wealth, of making profitable investments, they would certainly find it to be substantially impossible to do so. If, however, we imagine such a world to advance in civilization, if we imagine the wants of its inhabitants to increase and extend, we can see that opportunities for the profitable investment of capital would continually arise, and would be enlarged in proportion as the people increased their demand for and consumption of the products of labor. But it can never, in any condition of the world, be profitable to produce or to transport more than the people are at the time both able and willing to consume; and if it should ever happen that the rich people in the world, being mainly desirous of growing richer, were not *willing* to consume largely, and that the poor people, having but small wages, were not *able* to consume largely, there might arise a condition of affairs in which the aggregate investment of capital in the machinery and instruments of production and transportation would, temporarily at least, have grown out of and beyond its due proportion to the production and transportation that were at the time required or called for.

If, then, it is theoretically possible that there should be a condition of affairs in which the investment of capital with a view to the return of annual income to its owners should be overdone, the question arises whether such a condition has ever been actually experienced. To answer this question properly, it will be well to consider what would be the phenomena by which such a condition of affairs would naturally be accompanied, and then to inquire whether those phenomena have ever been observed as actually existing. We believe that, as the result of this inquiry, we shall learn that the phenomena which we should theoretically expect

to find, correspond exactly to those which we have in fact observed in recent years.

In the first place, this period of over-investment might be expected to arise after a time of great prosperity, during which people had made large gains which they had not spent in meeting their daily wants, but had been able and willing to invest. As a matter of fact, we have had in recent years a world overflowing with products, in the enjoyment of which the poor could not largely join by reason of the smallness of their wages, while most of those who had any surplus of income beyond the amount needed to supply them with the mere necessities of life, have been desirous of adding some portion, and many of them a large portion, of that income to their income-producing wealth. Consequently immense sums have in recent years been seeking for new fields of investment. The richer classes, in their desire to gain still greater wealth, have saved many millions out of their income to add to their investments, while, among the poorer classes, the well-to-do mechanics, shopkeepers, and others, in their desire to "lay up something against a rainy day," have diverted other millions from their every-day expenses to the field of investment. We may, therefore, safely conclude that the present time is one when, if ever, we might expect to find that the world had overdone the attempt to make profitable investments, and had created more of the instruments of production and distribution than there was any demand for.

Assuming, then, that recent years have been favorable to an over-investment of capital with a view to annual returns, let us next consider how such an over-investment, if actually existing, would manifest itself. It would seem that we might expect it to appear gradually that some of the favorite fields of investment had been overcrowded, that too many railroads had been built, that so many factories had been set in motion that more products were created than there was any demand for. Then, as the products accumulated in the warehouses, we might next expect to see the factories, in their competition to sell their products, reducing their selling prices till at last they would be ready to sell at or below the cost of production. Then there would naturally come a reduction of the wages of the work-people, as the result of an attempt to reduce the cost of the products below the price at which they could be sold, or the factories might stop work altogether till their accumulated products could be disposed of. Then, as the wages of the work-people were cut down or ceased altogether, there would arise distress among the laboring classes, and as the natural consequence of such distress, strikes and labor riots. At the same time that the poor were losing their wages, the rich would necessarily be losing their dividends from their factories, railroads, and other investments, and these causes would force all classes to economize, and thereby the consumption of the products of the factories and the work of the railroads, in the transportation of both passengers and freight, would be largely diminished, the business of the trader and mechanic would fall away, hotels, theatres, and places of amusement would languish. There would be an appearance of plenty in the markets, which would be filled with an abundance of the products of the field and of the factory; everybody would have something, either goods or labor, that he wished to sell, but comparatively few persons would be both able and willing to purchase. There would be a world full of factories lying idle, of railroads not paying their running expenses, of stores and warehouses standing empty, of banks overflowing with funds for which no investment could be found, and finally, and worst of all, there would be a world full of men and women, able and anxious to engage in useful labor, but forced to sit idle and

starving in the midst of the abundance by which they were surrounded. Is not all this exactly what we have seen in recent years and are seeing to-day?

In conclusion, do not the observed facts all agree with the theory that the hard times have been caused by an excessive desire to acquire income-producing wealth, by overdoing the creation of the machinery and instruments of production and transportation? And does not this theory afford, what other theories have failed to do, a full and simple explanation of the causes of the distress from which the whole business world is suffering to-day?

U. H. C.

BOSTON, February 16, 1885.

THE PHILADELPHIA PANACEA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I enclose the following cutting from the *Philadelphia Press*:

SURE CURE FOR DULL TIMES.

To the Editor of The Press:

SIR: I often see articles in your paper with regard to the improvement in trade which will occur when trade starts up. Now, it seems to me that the only thing to start trade is increased demand; the only way to increase demand is by increased consumption; the only way to increase consumption is by increasing the wages, and the only way to increase the wages is by increasing the tariff. Add 30 per cent. to the present tariff, and before six months idle men will be hard to find. In our past history the depressions of 1837, 1847, and 1857 were all cured by increasing the tariff. If it cured then, why won't it now?

Yours truly,

A WORKMAN.

NORRISTOWN, Pa., February 16.

The *Press* is a tariff organ that rejoices in the attempts of Mr. R. F. Porter to instruct its readers in protective fallacies.

The above note would be pitiable and not to be regarded, did it not very fairly express the dominant idea of that great class whose vote exercises so powerful a control in our economic system.

I am yours truly,

C. B. NEWBOLD.

PHILADELPHIA, February 19.

DEFECTIVE TRANSLATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is with dismay that many a student now sees the character and trustworthiness of faithful friends assaulted. The charges thus far made, however, can hardly be repelled, nor do I attempt the defence of the "Bohn translations"; but is not the phrase a little too general? The "Bohn translations" were made by between fifty and a hundred different men, and the presence in the list of such names as William Hazlitt, George Long, and Charles Rann Kennedy, not to mention other well-known scholars, ought at least to save the series from wholesale condemnation, whatever faults may be found in many of the versions. The defects of the "Bohn translations" are not so much defects of that series as weaknesses common to that kind of literary work. Allow me to present a few examples which far surpass in ludicrousness any that have been culled from "Bohn."

Some time ago a French writer, in treating upon the religious condition of this country, made some observations upon "Bob" Ingersoll. Among other things it was remarked that he was *spirituel*. The *Springfield Republican* quoted the criticism, and gravely and ingeniously informed its readers that Bob Ingersoll was spiritual.

The translator of Amicis's work on Holland went to work with great boldness, which, unhappily, was not seconded by any acquaintance with Holland or by adequate knowledge of Italian. Amicis naturally has many references to the *cataratti* (sluiceways) that are so common. Now it would be a curious speculation to

imagine the impressions of the various readers of the English as they meet with constant remarks about the "cataracts" in Holland, until the climax is reached with the vast "cataracts" at the mouths of the Rhine.

In Daudet's *Les Rois en Exil*, at the close of a meeting of the French Academy, many of the audience who have been led into day-dreaming by the speech of the "Noble Fitz-Roy" find, instead of imaginary carriages with footmen awaiting them, merely the rain pouring down amid "le fracas des omnibus et le carnavalesque bouquin des tramways." In the translation of this novel, published in Boston, the last phrase is rendered, "the carnival din of steam-cars." The general term "din" completely misses the realistic touch in "bouquin." "Steam-cars" is obviously an oversight, and not a misconception. In the same book "orgues de Barbarie" is translated "organs from Barbary." In *Numa Roumestan*, at a resort of Southern Frenchmen, one of the southerners asks in his broad accent for some "lemonade," saying, "Garçon, de gazeuse"; this the same translator ingeniously renders, "Waiter, a thimbleful of gazeuse." Earlier in *Numa* occurs this passage: "Rochemaure, . . . élevé chez les Pères de l'Assomption, . . . et gardant de son éducation, des can-deurs, des timidités de lévite en contraste avec sa royale Louis XIII., l'air à la fois d'un raffiné et d'un jocrisse." In this passage the Boston translator speaks of "a royal Louis XIII. air," while the translator of the Seaside Library edition paraphrases the lines thus: "Possesses a natural candor and timid levity which contrasted strangely with his Louis XIII. air."

But the following from the Boston translator is by far the most astonishing of my examples: Daudet refers to the Prince of Axel in *Les Rois en Exil* as "cet esprit engourdi et lourd que les vins de France . . . n'étaient pas plus parvenues à mettre en branle que la fermentation de la vendange ne gonfle et n'enlève en aérostat un foudre pesant cerclé de fer." This is done into English as follows: "That heavy, torpid mind which the wines of France . . . succeeded in stirring no better than the fermentation of the vintage can swell and raise a heavy thunderbolt into a balloon!" The mistake here is at once so simple and so tremendous that it seems almost inexplicable. But I should mislead if I left the impression that these Boston translations of Daudet are poor; on the contrary, the work is done with vivacity, taste, and general accuracy, so far as I can judge. The general character of the work is so good that these slips are exceedingly surprising.

So much translation is done to earn a scanty living, and so much as a labor of love for no return, that we should be thankful for what we get, though we have to keep our eyes open; and we should not be too severe in our criticism, remembering that the most masterly translation in the language contains a number of curious errors, which have been pointed out by men probably far inferior to the translators in capacity.

E. G. BOURNE.

NEW HAVEN, February 20.

PRIMITIVE COLOR PREFERENCES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Garner, in his attempt to account for color preferences, or rather to controvert Mr. Sproull's theory, allows himself to be drawn into misstatement of one of the most important in the whole range of facts connected with this subject. Children and savages, whose aesthetic sensations are crude and uncultivated, like best brilliant colors, especially red, as do people whose tastes never go beyond the childish or barbaric state; but it is missing the point and pith of all

cultivation to suppose that the preference for quieter and more harmonious colors depends in the least on "the dictates of fashion," and equally far from true that "whatever we most clearly and distinctly perceive will impress us most, and the pleasure or pain attendant upon our sensations will be proportionate to their distinctness of perception." If Mr. Garner knew anything of the higher forms of art, he would not have arrived at such a conclusion, for the work of every great colorist disproves it. Artists are, as a general thing, of all men least governed by fashion, and the higher the art of a painter, the more offensive to him are "loud" colors. Uncultivated, and therefore insensitive, taste enjoys the impression of decided and positive colors; but cultivation, while it weakens the hold of "fashion" and brings individuality of taste, makes the mind more susceptible to the impression of subdued and broken colors in harmony. If this were not so, all art would be impossible so far as color is concerned, and the analogy will hold good in all the elements of art. It is not fashion, but cultivation (*i. e.*, development of the powers of perception), which rejects the crude, and, going further, finds more beauty in the subtler and more refined qualities of color. In this respect fashion is antagonistic to taste, firstly, because the people who have the most taste are the least subject to the "dictates of fashion," and secondly, because true taste is conservative and does not like extreme changes, while fashion is dependent on them. Taste is individual, fashion gregarious, so that while people of taste form their own fashions, fashion forms people of no taste.

A leading French author—I think About—tried a most interesting experiment with one of his workmen, wishing to ascertain how far taste was a matter of habit. He had engaged to give him his dinner, and after some days, during which he had supplied him with the customary bottle of ordinary wine, he pretended to have run out of it and gave him a fine Bordeaux. At first the workman protested—he preferred the rough taste of the ordinary article; but when, after a few days of the Bordeaux, About went back to the original drink, the workman put it aside as undrinkable. Whether this be the case as a law in the preference of the palate, it is certainly true in the cultivation of the artistic perceptions and sensations.

No investigation of one branch of æsthetic impressions can be safely investigated separately—there must be one law for all; and the statement of this law must be the basis of more specialized investigations.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

NEW YORK, February 18.

Notes.

AN edition of Bryant's poem, 'The Unknown Way,' illustrated; 'The Celestial Country'; and a little book of selections, called 'Friend to Friend,' are among the Easter announcements of E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mr. Edward Roth, Philadelphia, has issued the sixth part of his 'Complete Index to Littell's *Living Age*,' reaching the name of Henry Noad in the biographical division.

The second edition of 'Methods of Teaching and Studying History,' edited by Prof. G. Stanley Hall (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.), is in large measure a new work. Dr. Diesterweg's "Instruction in History" has been omitted, as having meantime been published separately; and the list of contributors now contains no foreign name except that of Professor Seeley. Among the fresh writers are Prof. Ephraim Emerton, on

"The Practical Method in Higher Historical Instruction"; Dr. Richard T. Ely, on "Methods of Teaching Political Economy"; Mr. W. E. Foster, of the Providence Public Library, on "The Use of a Public Library in the Study of History"; and Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke, with his "Plea for Archaeological Instruction." As a book of reference, the value of this work still lies largely in the second portion, which contains not only Prof. W. F. Allen's bibliographical guide, but a bibliography of Church History, by the Rev. John Alonzo Fisher. We judge from the preface that the editor's expectation of making this the first volume of a "Pedagogical Library" is not likely to be realized. Attention should be called to an error in the last line on page viii, where "1844" stands for 1884.

A third volume has been added to Mr. Edward T. Mason's 'Personal Traits of British Authors' (Scribners). It includes Scott, Hogg, Campbell, Chalmers, Wilson, De Quincy, and Jeffrey. We have already sufficiently characterized this series.

The proposed changes in the requirements for admission to Harvard give a certain timeliness to Circular No. 7 of the Bureau of Education upon the teaching of physics in primary and secondary schools. Professor Charles K. Wead, of the University of Michigan, has here collated the replies of seventy three instructors in answer to a circular letter of inquiry sent out by the Bureau, and has added a chapter upon the position which physics holds in primary and secondary education in France, Germany, and England. There is evidently a demand for uniformity in the college requirements in this matter.

The paper read some time since by Dr. Chas. W. Dabney, Jr., before the Watauga Club of Raleigh, N. C., upon the necessity of establishing industrial schools in order to lead to the utilization of the State's remarkable timber resources, has attracted much attention, and greatly strengthened the memorial of this club, addressed to the State Legislature now in session, for the establishment of such a school. Dr. Dabney claims for North Carolina 120 of the 338 kinds of timber found in the United States, and declares that these include the best and finest of ornamental woods. Notwithstanding this, North Carolina is entirely wanting in any manufactories of wood of more than local importance.

The notable article in *Outing* for March is that descriptive of the new house of the Massachusetts Bicycle Club in Boston. A gymnasium is one of the features of this well-appointed establishment.

In a note on Dr. Rây's 'Cholera and its Treatment' (*Nation*, No. 1001) we remarked: "Chlorinated lime is distinctly not fit to disinfect choleraic discharges, as recommended. Such disinfection requires an acid, not an alkaline agent." We had in mind that such discharges retain their virulence longest in alkaline media. It is proper now to say that very recent experiments by Dr. Sternberg appear to demonstrate that, by virtue of the hypochlorite of lime contained in good commercial "chloride of lime," the latter becomes an effective germicide when applied in solution. If the cause of cholera is a bacillus, this old agent thus applied may destroy it. It remains true, however, that lime, although useful as an oxidizer, is presumably a not powerful disinfectant *per se*, that the chlorine emitted has no influence upon the cholera-cause, and that to scatter chloride of lime with the view of "purifying the air" is futile. Corrosive sublimate in solution is probably the cheapest and best disinfectant available.

The bringing over of emigrants in sailing vessels is so much a thing of the past that it is ten years since the last instance was recorded by the *Deutsche Gesellschaft* of this city. So we read in the 101st annual report of this useful society. It is also remarked that while the arrivals at the port of New York fell off about 20 per cent. in

1884, the proportion of Bohemians, Hungarians, and Russians increased some 40 per cent., forming about one-ninth of the total. A larger number than usual betook themselves to California, Dakota, Indiana, Kansas, and Texas. The new comers were so far from being paupers that they exchanged at Castle Garden alone \$1,253,057 (a smaller sum than the year before); and the railroads annually sell at the same place from \$3,000,000 to \$4,000,000 worth of tickets.

A paper of a class which cannot be very numerous—the *Record*, organ (shall we say?) of the First Presbyterian Church, Morristown, N. J.—begins in its current monthly issue Part II. of a history of that Church, in instalments. The feature of this is a register of communicants, their wives, husbands, and children from 1742 to 1885—a considerable genealogical undertaking.

"School and Fireside" is the title of a little series of selections of modern French plays and novelettes just begun to be edited by M. Jules Lévy, whose monthly periodical *Le Français* we have so often had occasion to praise. Henry Meilhac's one-act comedy, "La Duchesse Martin," is chosen to lead off. M. Lévy's notes are calculated for almost any class of students. The publisher is Carl Schoenhof, Boston.

Two plays of Alfred de Musset's, "On ne badine pas avec l'amour" and "Fantasio," have been bound together in the Clarendon Press Series (Oxford). Mr. Walter Herries Pollock furnishes a sketch of Musset's life (which is defective in giving no account of the poet's father), introductions to both plays, and notes to the second. Mr. George Saintsbury contributes an essay on the progress of French comedy, which is much the best of the English matter.

One of the last labors of the late Paul Lacroix was to set in order the scattered articles and parts of articles by the late Édouard Fournier, relating to Molière, his life, works, and theatrical interpreters. This doubly posthumous collection, "Études sur la vie et les œuvres de Molière," has just been published, with a brief preface by M. Auguste Vitu, the dramatic critic of the *Figaro*. M. Vitu is as fervent a Moliérist as were MM. Fournier and Lacroix, but he is saner and more strict in his application of scientific methods. It is pleasant to see that he agrees with Mr. Andrew Lang in rejecting the noisome theory that Molière's wife was the daughter of Madeleine Béjart.

The *Revue Historique* for January prints, for the first time, the full text of the "Petition of the Protestants of France to Louis XIV." This famous document, hitherto only known from the analysis given in Benoit's "History of the Edict of Nantes," was from the pen of Claude, the leading Huguenot pastor. Written at a time when the persecution of the Reformed Church had become well-nigh intolerable and there were great fears that the revocation of the edict was imminent, it is, nevertheless, a calm, dignified, and respectful appeal to the King, setting forth the condition of his Protestant subjects in a simple but pathetic statement of facts. No reference is made to the principle of the irrevocability of the edict, though many of the leading Protestants were strenuous that this should be done. Claude maintained, however, that it was unwise to remind Louis that there were limits to his sovereign power. The petition was presented in January, 1685, and, it is hardly necessary to add, received no attention, even if it actually reached the King. As a faithful picture of the condition of the Huguenots at that time, the document has great value. It is printed from a copy preserved in the Archives Nationales, and is edited with numerous notes by M. F. Puaux.

H. Gaidoz, noticing, in *Polybiblion*, Mohr's bibliography of typographical centenaries ('Die Jubelfeste der Buchdruckerkunst und ihre Lite-

ratur,' Vienna, Jasper, 117 pp. 8vo), points out that among the twenty celebrations not one was held in France. Germany, Holland, Belgium, England, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Sweden, Russia, have all had their festivals; France has done nothing. In fact, in the matter of early printing she has not very much to boast of. She has early-printed books—that is, as early as 1470—but the art was introduced by foreigners, and, what is peculiarly distasteful just now, the first Parisian printers, Gering, Franz, and Friburger, were Germans, and so were most of their early successors.

The *Athenæum* for February 7 prints an invitation to an international competition in automatic engraving, by a committee headed by Mr. W. Blades. Subjects in pen-and-ink, line-engraving, drawing in wash, and photography (of sculpture, landscape, and portrait), have been selected for treatment by all the "processes" alike, and can be obtained on application to J. S. Hodson, Hon. Secretary, at Gray's Inn Chambers, 20 High Holborn, W. C. The time seems rather limited, as the jury will award its prizes upon a private view in April next, when the inevitable public exhibition at South Kensington will follow.

Mr. John M. Cook, well known to most travellers in Egypt, has been employed by the Government in organizing the transportation service of the Nile expedition. In an address before the Royal Geographical Society, immediately after his return to England, he stated that on completing his special work he ascended the river as far as Dongola, and that "although he had been travelling on the Nile for sixteen years, he had not the most remote idea of the enormous difficulties to be encountered, or he should have hesitated running some of the risks he had to run if he had been able to foresee them." The Government survey, in anticipation of the expedition, though by competent naval officers, was made at high water, and consequently when the troops passed up there were four or five dangerous cataracts, between the second and third cataracts, which were not laid down on the maps. His boat, the only one besides the whalers which succeeded in getting from the lower Nile to Dongola, was but 24 feet long, 6 feet 6 inches beam, and drawing 20 inches of water, and yet "at five different points (in 74 miles) it required 170 men in addition to his own crew to pull it through the cataracts, and at one point 75 Dongolese had to be employed in addition." This was the principal reason of the delay in the concentration of the troops at Dongola.

The latest additions to the Tauchnitz collection are Mark Twain's 'Adventures of Huckleberry Finn' and Mr. F. Marion Crawford's 'An American Politician.'

Among the most recent numbers of the collection of foreign novelists published in Paris by Hachette & Cie., is 'La Passagère de l'Aroostook,' translated by Mme. Marie Dronsart from the English of Mr. W. D. Howells.

"Hugh Conway's" 'Dark Days' has now reached a circulation in England of nearly two hundred thousand copies—surpassing that of 'Called Back.' Mr. Lang's clever parody, 'Much Darker Days,' is nearing its twenty-fifth thousand.

Mr. Christern sends us the prospectus of an Atlas of China, with orographical and geologic maps on a scale of 1:750,000, to accompany Baron Richthofen's classic work (1877-1882) on that country (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer). The first part will deal with Northern China, the subject of Richthofen's second volume. The price will be twenty-four marks for twelve maps, constituting the first half of Part I. Fourteen will follow. The Atlas will finally include a general map of China on a scale of 1:3,000,000.

The news of Mrs. James Russell Lowell's death

will be received with deep sympathy by all Mr. Lowell's friends in both hemispheres. The state of her health has, in fact, clouded nearly the whole period of his residence abroad. She had a desperate illness, lasting many months, while he was in Spain, and her recovery was never sufficiently complete to enable her to share the brilliant social activity which has marked his life in London. She was only able to be presented to the Queen at a private reception specially arranged for her. She was a woman of many gifts and much cultivation, and was probably the critic whom during the last twenty-five years he has in his literary work most heeded.

The late John Norton Pomeroy, LL.D., editor of the *Pacific Coast Law Reporter*, and the head of the Faculty of the Hastings Law School of San Francisco, in 1865 published 'An Introduction to Municipal Law,' and in 1868 followed this with another, 'An Introduction to Constitutional Law.' Both these books passed through several editions, and were adopted as text-books in a number of leading universities. In 1870 he published a treatise on 'Remedies and Remedial Rights,' under the reformed practice, which is regarded as of high authority. His greatest work, however, is 'Equity Jurisprudence,' in three large octavo volumes, published in San Francisco in 1881. Dr. Pomeroy contributed numerous articles to 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopedia,' and was for many years a valued contributor to the *Nation*.

Mr. John Fiske begins at Chickering Hall on March 3 a series of thirteen lectures on "The Story of the American Revolution." Few American lecturers are so well equipped as Mr. Fiske; fewer still, perhaps, have a greater natural gift for interesting an audience.

—We are able to recall no month whose magazines were so exclusively American in their themes as are those for March. From the article of Mr. John Fiske, in *Harper's*, which shows that it is only a question of time—and a short time, too—when the English race shall have crowded out of individual existence all other peoples of the earth, with the possible exception of the Russians and the Chinese, to the description, in the same magazine, of an obscure Virginian town, this national, or at least racial, passion is almost uninterrupted. Besides the articles we have mentioned, *Harper's* has an interesting account of Jefferson's habits, founded on his financial diary, a slight but agreeable description of some new Washington houses, which are termed throughout the text, as well as in the title, "homes"—as though "home" connoted no other idea than that of the roof which shelters us—and, in "The Cape Ann Quarries," an example of the deadly-lively, hop-and-skip kind of article which, we supposed, was long since extinct, or else appeared only in "Lady's Books." Mr. John Bigelow, who wrote the *Harper* article on Jefferson, appears in the *Century* with recollections of Charles O'Connor, while the national glory is further propitiated by reminiscences of Webster. Those who are willing occasionally to exercise their thinking faculties in magazine-reading may find the best American article of the month to be that in the *Atlantic* on the historical position of the Supreme Court, to which the author has given the misleading title of "The Consolidation of the Colonies." Our industrial progress, especially that of the Southern States, is agreeably set forth in *Lippincott's*, in connection with the New Orleans Exhibition, by Mr. E. C. Bruce, whose successful papers on the Philadelphia Exhibition our readers may remember. The *Atlantic* has two biographical articles, each good in its way, the one a continuation of the series on Madame Mohl, the other a résumé, by Mrs. C. B. Martin, of a Russian account of the mo-

ther of Turgeneff, written by her adopted daughter. It is singularly interesting and pathetic, reading not unlike one of Turgeneff's stories, and exhibiting, incidentally or accidentally, the state of human wretchedness from which was derived his sad disposition as well as the pathos of his tales. To the three horses, in the shape of serial novels, which the *Atlantic* has been driving abreast, is added, in this number, a fourth; for a novel, and not, as one would infer from the title, a series of Autocrat papers, the "New Portfolio" turns out to be. Dr. Holmes drops a hint that it is to have a distinctly psychological or physiological motive.

—The fight of the *Monitor* and *Merrimac* was so notable an event in the general history of naval warfare as well as in our own civil war that romantic associations gather easily about it. The story is admirably told on both sides in the *Century* by men who had prominent places in the engagement, and with a directness and modesty beyond praise. Lieutenant Wood gives us, from the Confederate standpoint, the easy triumph over the "wooden walls"—the *Congress* and the *Cumberland*—on the first day, and the awakening on the next to the fact that they had a "very hard nut to crack" in the *Monitor*. He thinks the sheering off by the national vessel after Captain Worden was injured, was evidence of a willingness to quit, and relieves the retiring of the *Merrimac* to Norfolk from the charge of retreating. He throws quite new light on the subsequent destruction of the vessel, by a detailed statement of the reasons which led first to lightening her till her unprotected sides below the armor plating were exposed, and then to abandoning her, when the pilots, at whose instance she had been put out of condition to fight, now refused to take her up the James River within the Confederate lines. Commander Green, of the *Monitor*, tells first of the perilous voyage from New York to Fortress Monroe, in which officers and crew were nearly exhausted in the effort to preserve a vessel made only as a harbor battery, and wholly unsuited to weather a heavy sea. He then gives the dramatic scene of her arrival in Hampton Roads in the midst of the dismay caused by the terrible *Merrimac* on the first day, and the all-night labor of the ship's company in preparing her for action. Thus reduced almost to the point of exhaustion, they fought their ship through the whole morning, having decidedly the advantage till the pilot-house was shattered and the wounding and blinding of Worden made a short interval before Mr. Green could fully assume command, during which the ship moved out of action. Heading for her enemy again, the *Merrimac* was seen to be retreating, and a few parting shots were sent after her. A novel and interesting point is Mr. Green's description of the turret during the fight, and the confusing effect of the revolving of the turret upon its occupants, whose means of outlook were so small that it was very difficult to tell at what point to stop the revolution and fire the guns. General Colston's article, describing the scene from the shore and from a small boat, helps to make up a very complete interior and exterior picture of the fight. The illustrations, without an exception, afford real helps to the reader in understanding the narratives, and a wholesome stimulus to his imagination. The "Recollections of a Private" also strike us as fully up to the standard of former numbers.

—The illustrations of *Harper's* include a number of portraits of the Royal House of Orange which illustrate what seems to be the growing tendency of our school of wood-engraving in work of this class—to sacrifice all the qualities of form to an imitation of texture. This might be appropriate to the reproduction of paintings, but

would even there only represent superficial qualities. The vital facts of form and structure are more and more lost sight of in the pursuit of the secondary qualities which do not belong to nature, but to the technique of art. The style of cutting which represents well enough the values and textures of an oil portrait, is even employed in reproducing a photograph, where it has not the least excuse. The leading portraits of the *Century* fall under this same censure. The rotten texture which may well enough be supposed to represent the impasto of a vigorous brush, has no relation to the subtle gradations of a photograph, and translates nothing. This kind of work for portraits is all wrong, and grows worse year by year. The illustrations of General Colston's article on the Sudan will, however, restore the equanimity of the believers in our school of wood-cutting. In the "Open-letter" department Mrs. Van Rensselaer takes to task Dr. Coan for his ideas of Courbet as an artist, in a reply which only shows that she has no better idea of the artist than she conceived Dr. Coan to have had. Courbet was a "prime mover" in no revolution in art—he was an innovator only as every man of intense individuality is an innovator; but the idea of classing him and Millet together as the "first champions of what we call—rather vaguely and incorrectly—'realism' in art," shows total ignorance not only of the history of French art, but of the true character of the art of both Millet and Courbet. These men had almost nothing in common—in the motive of their art absolutely nothing—nor can they be placed in the same category of painters.

—The *Art Journal* for March is not, so far as its illustrations go, an advance on past numbers, which it must be to be good. An elaborate article entitled "In Arden" is based on the assumption that the forest of Arden, the scene of "As You Like It," is an English forest of that name, for which there is absolutely no warrant. The play is French in its story, and nothing points to an English locality, and even the only allusion to England—"and there they live like the old Robin Hood of England"—is foreign in its drift. The most interesting contribution, from the literary point of view, is one on Fuseli, by Wilfrid Meynell, in which excellent use is made of a copy of that painter's literary works owned by Dante Rossetti, and inscribed by him with marginal comments on the ideas of Fuseli. An article on Defregger, by Beavington Atkinson, is one of the commonplace attempts at apotheosis of the commonplace in painting; and another, by Frederick Wedmore, on Chardin, shows that the highest claims to technical distinction of that long-neglected painter (who, by the way, was a favorite of J. F. Millet), have entirely escaped his commentator, who makes simply a piece of padding of material apparently sifted from French authorities, and uninformed by any personal knowledge of the painter's work. The *Magazine of Art* has an account of the *Ausidei Raphael*—which will, to the general world, be known as the highest-priced picture in the world; and padding articles on the studio of Mr. Holl, and on Nicolas Poussin. More interesting is "Early Sculptured Stones in England," though the exactness of observation of the writer is not made evident by his description of a "Saxon dandy taking a sitting shot with a cross-bow," when there is no suspicion of a cross-bow in the illustration, but a good Saxon bow and arrow. How Signora Villari comes to say, in her "Temple and Tomb," "we all know how Dion the historian, writing in 729 B. C., tells us that Agrippa perfected the Pantheon in that year," is not easy to see; but it is clear that the magazine wants editing. The *Studio* picks up Mr. Gosse's kind approbation of our architecture in the *Critic* with a surprising mildness of comment. We should have expected

something more pungent than this: "Mr. Gosse's remarks do not show much of the critical faculty." The *Portfolio* opens with a notable etching of a Street in Rouen, with a glimpse of the cathedral, by Lalanne; and the third etching, of Landseer's "King Charles Spaniels," well known by the engraving, is accompanied by an interesting study on Landseer by F. G. Stephens.

—The celebration, last August, of the 250th anniversary of the incorporation of the town of Ipswich, Mass., has produced one of the best of the numerous records of such occasions, now multiplying yearly. The publishers (Little, Brown & Co.) and the press (John Wilson & Son) guarantee the beautiful appearance of the pamphlet before us, which is, moreover, illustrated in the best manner with interesting and even charming photographic views of the town, of its founder (John Winthrop, jr.), of the older houses, etc. Ipswich was settled under the best auspices and with peculiar selectness, and besides its associations with the Winthrop family it points to Mrs. Anne Bradstreet, the first New England poetess; the Rev. John Norton, author of the first Latin book published in America; the Rev. Nathaniel Ward, author of the Puritan classic "The Simple Cobbler of Agawam"; Richard Saltonstall, author of what a descendant is inclined to think the first anti-slavery petition on record; Nathan Dane, the father of the Northwest Ordinance; and Rufus Choate. Mr. Blaine was also "claimed" as a townsman by one of the poets of the anniversary, on the strength of his having married a descendant of two of the families among the original colonists. "Mother Ipswich" loquiter:

"And thou, O Desire of the Nation, loved from the sea to the sea,
High above stain as a star, still upward thy pathway be!
By thy blood of the stately Midland, by thy strength of the Northern Pine,
By the sacred fire bright on thy hearthstone, I name thee, and claim thee mine."

By a curious coincidence, Mr. Blaine's letter to the committee is followed by one from Commissioner Dudley of the Pension Bureau, whose maternal grandfather was an inhabitant of Ipswich in the last century.

—Great men are no longer bred in Ipswich any more than in most other New England towns, but the civic virtues have remained, and public spirit has grown at a faster rate than the slowly ascending population. Here, as elsewhere, one sees a native of the place making his fortune at a distance and sending part of it back in the shape of an educational endowment. Thus the old Latin School, founded in 1651, becomes the prosperous Manning School of to-day. Ipswich has escaped the great transformation which manufactures and the consequent influx of a foreign element have caused in other Massachusetts towns. It is still rural and picturesque, and easily cherishes its abundant old-time legends. The historical address of the day, by the Rev. John C. Kimball, sets all this forth very pleasantly, and in a style, both thoughtful and literary, above the level of similar performances. Mr. Leverett Saltonstall was also among the speakers, and recalled the fact that at the 250th celebration of Governor Endicott's landing in Salem (in 1628), there were present descendants of the four settlers whom Endicott found on the spot, who still lived in Salem and bore the name of their ancestors; as well as descendants of Governor Winthrop and Sir Richard Saltonstall, whom Endicott received in Salem in 1630. This is a good example of the endurance of the Puritan stock. As for Puritan longevity, Mr. Saltonstall could tell of having heard the late Thomas H. Perkins say, thirty or forty years ago, that "in his youth he had seen an old man who had conversed with Peregrine White, the first child born in the Plymouth Colony."

—M. Clermont-Ganneau, who, when the sharper Shapira was trying to delude the British Museum

into buying his wonderfully early codex of Deuteronomy, routed the wily Jew horse and foot, while the learned expert employed by the Museum was still occupied in getting his batteries into position, has published a book of more than three hundred pages on 'Les Fraudes archéologiques en Palestine,' in which he gives an account of those which he has unmasked. It is very entertaining reading, for M. Clermont-Ganneau has a bright style, and there is plenty of material to deal with. For there are even more false than true inscriptions in the Holy Land—only seven authentic inscriptions earlier than the taking of Jerusalem by Titus (six of them discovered by M. Ganneau himself); but M. Ganneau enumerates and describes the false stele of the Temple, the false inscription of Selovân, the seal of King David, the sarcophagus of Samson, the lamp of Barcochebas, to say nothing of the Moabite potteries at Berlin, the manuscript of Deuteronomy that came near being at London, and various Phœnician monuments to be found in the museums at Vienna, London, and Paris. The pecuniary reward of forgery is so great when successful, that it would be too much to hope that we have seen the end of it; but M. Ganneau's book will put the public a little more on its guard, show them some of the methods of detection, hinder somewhat the falsification of history, and prevent Syrian epigraphy from being entirely discredited.

—The undated globe-map containing the name "America" recently discovered by Baron Nordenskiöld has been issued in facsimile by the American Geographical Society (Bulletin No. 4, 1884), together with a translation of the article upon it which the discoverer contributed to the Journal of the Swedish Society of Anthropology and Geography. The map consists of twelve gores adapted for pasting upon a four-inch globe, and was probably compiled at Ingolstadt. The Old World is the same as in the Sylvanus-Ptolemy map of 1511. The New World is conceived as it appears upon the globes of Schöner of 1515 and 1520. It lies close against Japan, with the bulky island of South America separated from the strip that does duty for North America, by that famous strait which would have abrogated the Clayton-Bulwer treaty by anticipation, had the early map-makers had their way. Inscriptions are few. The discovery of South America is assigned to 1497, but no discoverer is named. *Terra Cubæ* is placed north of Florida, while Cuba is blank. The Stobnicza map (1512) first made this mistake, placing *Isabella* on the mainland. Schöner muddled matters still more in 1520 by restoring *Isabella* to Cuba, but placing *Cuba* on the mainland. Münster in 1532 agrees in error with the new map. Against San Domingo we read: *Spagnolla ins—in qua reperit—lignū guaiac*.

—The first dated representations of the New World bearing the name "America" were the globe of Schöner and the map of Apianus in 1520. Prior to those, out of some forty maps and globes, "America" is found upon the following only, which are undated: The two Hauslab globes (1509), 1513; the Tross globe-map (1514); the "Da Vinci" sketch (1513-14), 1515-16; the two Schöner globes (1515). Does the new map belong in this list? Baron Nordenskiöld thinks that it is "one of the very oldest maps where the name 'America' is to be found." Dr. Wieser, noting that the *Spagnolla* inscription is found on Apianus's map of 1520 and not elsewhere, assigns the new map to that geographer, and places it later than 1527. Against the latter view militates the fact that the delineation is quite different from that of Apianus. On the other hand, the medicinal properties of guaiacum wood (the *lignum-vitæ* of commerce) were first

enlarged upon in Germany about 1517-1519. As this map-maker probably had a Spanish correspondent, the fame of the new drug may, however, have reached him by that channel. The termination of South America in a point about 45° S. lat. has no chronological significance. The most that can be said is, that the Norden-skiöld map was made up from the Sylvanus-Ptolemy map of 1511, and the 1515 globe of Schöner, or a like work, with some changes, good and bad (e. g., Yucatan is a peninsula; Cuba has an inch-worm shape, quite *sui generis*). It may be safely assigned to the period 1515-1518; it may, with equal safety, be remanded to the second quarter of the century, as it is not a whit cruder than the map perpetrated by Münster in 1532. The names are printed with registered type. The first specimen of this practice is in the Sylvanus-Ptolemy map of 1511.

—We have been informed that Mr. Woodrow Wilson, whose 'Congressional Government' we lately reviewed, has accepted the Chair of History in the Bryn Mawr College for Women. Mr. Wilson, our readers may be pleased to hear, is a product of the new South, a nephew of the Rev. Dr. Woodrow of whom we have recently made frequent mention, a graduate of Princeton (class of '79), and an alumnus (not a graduate) of the Law School of the University of Virginia. While yet an undergraduate he contributed to the *International Review* in 1879 an article of considerable thoughtfulness on "Cabinet Government in the United States," which was followed by the article in the *Oerland Monthly* for January, 1884, to which reference was made in our review. These were the precursors of the recently published book, but, in addition to these, Mr. Wilson has made occasional contributions to the newspapers and to college magazines. While attending the Law School of the University of Virginia he was elected editor of the Magazine, and wrote for it two articles, one on John Bright and the other on Gladstone, which established at once for him a high reputation at that institution, and came very near securing its most coveted prize—the Magazine medal. Subsequently, while engaged in the practice of his profession in Atlanta, Georgia, he furnished to the *Evening Post* several very valuable letters on Southern topics. He has now been for two sessions at Johns Hopkins, pursuing a course of History and Political Science. We understand that in Washington his book is being eagerly read by Congressmen, and that its study is generally urged by instructors upon their pupils.

—One of the prettiest stories in the 'Arabian Nights' is that in which the Fairy Maimouna and the Afrite Danhash dispute about the comparative beauty of their two protégés, Prince Camaralzaman and the Princess Badoura. The doubt is settled by bringing them together asleep, and alternately waking each to see which will be most inflamed with love at the sight of the other. Madame Y must have thought that she had been subjected to some such test when, on arriving home from a long, solitary railway journey, during which she had slept all night, her husband inquired with indignation how it was that one of her boots was a man's. She could give no explanation, and the end of a lively quarrel was an action for divorce on the part of the suspicious husband. At the very same time Monsieur X was vainly trying to get his wife to believe the story by which he attempted to excuse the presence on his right foot of a lady's boot, on his return from a night trip on the same railway. He asseverated in vain that on boarding the train from a way station he had been shown into a coupé occupied by a solitary lady asleep; that as his boots were painfully tight he had drawn them off and had gone to sleep himself;

that on waking he found himself near his journey's end, hurriedly hunted up his boots, and put them on as best he could, but that he found it almost impossible to pull on the right one; that, although he succeeded and jumped out of the carriage, leaving the lady asleep, he found it impossible to make a single step with his right foot and had to ride home. His wife pook-pooked the story, and another suit for divorce was the consequence. Luckily both plaintiffs applied to the same lawyer, who was honest enough to set the whole matter in its right light. The two couples were reconciled, and are going to live happily ever after.

—Dr. Hans Meyer, a son of the publisher of Meyer's 'Conversations-Lexikon,' has just published through his father's firm (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Westermann) an attractive book, 'Eine Weltreise: Plaudereien aus einer zweijährigen Weltumsegelung 1881-1883.' The book seems to come up to Lady Montagu's standard for a book of travels, recently quoted in the *Nation*, giving "true intelligence from distant countries," as the author is one of "those who have passed [time in] them without a design of publishing their remarks." It is mainly a reprint of the author's letters to his family and friends, is privately printed but not published, and has all the charm of such communications, coming from an enthusiastic young man well equipped for observation and scientific research, and of a literary turn of mind. Starting by way of Vienna, down the Danube, our author stopped at Constantinople and Athens, passed through Syria and Egypt, touched Bombay, Ceylon, Java, Manila, and travelled extensively in the Philippine Islands to many places not hitherto trodden by the foot of Europeans. From the seaports of China and Japan he went to San Francisco, Mexico, Cuba; and, after visiting the East and West of the United States, sailed from New York to Bremen. The book is well written and handsomely illustrated by cuts from photographs taken by the author, and is altogether well worth reading. The obligatory remarks on things American are not, of course, wanting, nor is the characterization of the American lady, which is far from flattering; echoing, probably, the commonplace notions of some German friend. An amusing mistake (p. 476) may be noticed. Doctor Meyer describes how he loved to sit on one of the benches on Union Square opposite the Lincoln monument, musing over the famous inscription around its base: "With malice [toward none, with charity] for all." It so happened that the portion in brackets alone struck his eye, and, being short-sighted, he misread "toward" for "forward." Intent on giving the sentence "Forward none with charity" a meaning whether or no, and thereby making the excuse of a typographical error impossible, he translates it into German: "Help nobody along for charity's sake"—which, if a meaning it must have, is not so bad after all for "Old Abe."

—In the death of Peter Christian Asbjørnsen, which occurred on the 6th of January, at his home in Christiania, Norwegian literature has suffered a severe loss. He was born in that city on January 15, 1812, the son of a glazier, in narrow circumstances, who, however, appreciated his bright and gifted lad, and encouraged him to struggle to secure an education. Asbjørnsen succeeded in reaching the University of Norway in 1833, but was forced to leave, before taking a degree, to go up into the country as a private tutor, in order to replenish his slender purse. In 1837, however, he resumed his attendance, and, studying medicine, passed the so-called philological-philosophical examination. But it was more to his liking to study natural history, especially zoölogy, which science he taught to medical stu-

dents and also to classes in various schools. While thus engaged he published a 'Natural History for the Young,' so attractively written that it is supposed to have been influential in inciting to this study many of the most promising members of the present corps of Norwegian naturalists. He had delighted, even in his earliest manhood, and in his student days, in long foot-rambles through the forest regions, or up the mountain sides of his native country; and it was upon these journeys that he made the first accumulations of those "Norwegian Folk and Fairy Tales" which have made his name a familiar one in every civilized country, and which, as H. Gaidoz points out in the last number of *Mélanges*, have been translated into almost every cultivated language of Europe except the French. In 1842-43 he published his first series of stories; his friend the late Bishop Moe contributing to the volume the collection of similar stories made by him. It was the second edition of this work which Sir George Webbe Dasent printed under the title of 'Popular Tales from the Norse,' putting his own name upon the title-page, and nowhere in the book naming or referring to the real authors. From 1846 to 1853 Asbjørnsen's active labors were in the cause of science. It was during these years that he made various excursions to different parts of the coast of Norway, at the instance of the University, which paid him a stipend from its treasury; and his work was not without important results and valuable discoveries, especially in deep-sea life, in which field he was a pioneer explorer. But even while thus engaged he did not neglect any opportunity to gather from the lips of the country folk their beautiful stories; and many an excursion was undertaken solely for the purpose of adding to his collection. His delightful manner made him peculiarly successful in extracting from the shy peasants and boatmen their memorized tales, and he was aided greatly by his own power to tell a good story. His frequent journeys in different parts of Norway had given Asbjørnsen unusual opportunities to become impressed with the importance to his country of its great forest areas, and he was quick to see the need for systematized methods to prevent needless destruction and waste, and to encourage the cultivation of forest growths. His intelligent efforts to awaken interest in this direction were quickly recognized by the Norwegian Government, which twice sent him abroad, first to study the practical methods of forest culture in use in Germany and Austria, and second, to observe the methods employed in the preparation of turf for fuel in Denmark, Holland, and Hanover; and from 1856 to 1876 he was the active and responsible servant of the State in conducting the investigations and carrying out the measures instituted for the development and better utilization of forest products. In the latter year delicate health obliged him to tender his resignation, upon accepting which the Government allowed him a yearly pension of 800 crowns.

—The value of Asbjørnsen's work to Norwegian literature can hardly be overestimated. He uncovered the rich mine which has supplied the material so well used by the modern school of Norwegian writers, best known by its two great representatives Ibsen and Bjørnson. The latter has indeed said, when, as spokesman of the students' association, he addressed Asbjørnsen upon the occasion of his fifty-eighth birthday celebration: "Little should I have become, in truth, had you not existed." The effect of the publication of the several series of folk tales upon the literary language of Norway has still to be fully acknowledged, but it was great. It is as yet, perhaps, better appreciated by the philologist than by the mere man of letters. Professor Storm, in an elaborate article upon the

present language movement in Norway, has said: "The real reformer who has brought the genuine, full-toned Norwegian style into the language of our literature, is the great storyteller Asbjørnsen. His whole tone is so truly that of the Norse people, and yet so pithy and natural, that every soundly constructed Norseman feels himself conquered and won by it. Ostensibly the form is Danish, but yet the whole, the *ensemble*, is genuine Norse." But the object nearest to Asbjørnsen's heart was the betterment of the condition of the common people of his native land, and the activity of his interest is evinced by the long list of distinct works and periodical contributions which he wrote, and in which he attempted to instruct his countrymen in the affairs of their daily life. How to care for their forests; how to plant their fruit trees; how best to cure their hay; how to prepare their turf for fuel; how to utilize their spare time in profitable wood-carving; how to cook their food sensibly—nothing was unimportant to the great-hearted philanthropist. Throughout the length and breadth of Norway his genial presence will be missed and his loss lamented.

—If we are not mistaken, there are now in the world an unusual number of still active and conspicuous scholars who have passed their eightieth year. The historians Bancroft and Ranke will occur to every reader. Hardly less known, at least to students of classical antiquity, is the Danish philologist and statesman, J. N. Madvig, who was born in 1804 and began to teach at the University of Copenhagen almost sixty years ago, in 1826. For several years now he has been almost entirely blind, and yet his labors continue. Three years ago (No. 868) we noticed the first volume of his new work on the Roman Constitution. That work is now complete, and an English translation of it has been, we understand, for some time in preparation. A sort of sequel to it has recently appeared in the shape of a third volume of the author's 'Adversaria Critica,' giving those corrections of Latin texts which occurred to him during the final revision of his constitutional studies. And within the past year have appeared almost simultaneously in French and in German new editions of his 'Greek Syntax.' This work, at the time of its first appearance—the preface of the first German edition is dated August, 1846—probably marked a greater advance at a single step than any other book of this century upon the same subject. The new edition shows changes mainly in detail: it was hardly to be expected of the author of such a system that he should deal roughly with it. German critics carp somewhat at small peculiarities in Madvig's use of German, but, none the less, his statements in German are marvellously clear. He must be a remarkable Hellenist who can learn nothing from the book. The new preface for the German edition gives expression, on the whole not very ungraciously, to the feeling that his work has been more used than praised in Germany, and perhaps even less used than it should have been. We are somewhat sceptical about the jealousy with which German scholars are often supposed to regard their brethren from the smaller neighboring states; but Madvig is not alone in his suspicion. Those who remember the old preface to the 'Greek Syntax' will regret not to find it reprinted in the new edition.

TAINÉ'S 'GOUVERNEMENT RÉVOLUTIONNAIRE.'

Les Origines de la France Contemporaine. Par H. Taine de l'Académie Française. La Révolution. Tome III.: Le Gouvernement Révolutionnaire. Paris: Hachette. New York: F. W. Christern. 1885.

TAINÉ'S 'Origines de la France Contemporaine'

is sure to interest, and is equally certain not to satisfy, judicious readers. The importance of his work and the incompleteness of his theories need to be pressed with equal emphasis on the reading public. The importance of this elaborate treatise on the Revolution hardly admits of exaggeration. Taine's book, taken as a whole, is as thoroughgoing a piece of literary workmanship as human industry has ever produced. It is a repertory of facts which, by the mere force of cumulative evidence, not only smashes to pieces the wild exaggerations of the Revolutionary legend, but also irreparably damages the more sober but highly imaginative theory of the Revolution which was invented by the genius of Carlyle, and was spread far and wide throughout the English-speaking world by one of the most popular of the novels of Dickens. In the truth of the great dramatic work which the Scotch moralist put forward as at once a picture and a theory of the Revolution, no man who has read Taine with care can any longer seriously believe. Still less can any student of 'Le Gouvernement Révolutionnaire' look upon the 'Tale of Two Cities,' which is nothing more than a popular rendering of Carlyle's work, as a tale founded upon fact. The plain truth is, that Taine, who is neither an original thinker nor a powerful writer, has, by the mere strength of evidence, irreparably discredited the views of men who in intellect, and still more in imagination, are immeasurably his superiors.

We do not for a moment hold that Taine has spoken the last word, or anything like the last word, about the extraordinary epoch which he criticises. But we are absolutely convinced that he has spoken a word in season which must command the attention of every man of sense and honesty. Those of us who draw their ideas of the Revolutionary era directly or indirectly from Carlyle, will not find it necessary to accept all Taine's conclusions. Such men may even maintain (and with considerable plausibility) that Taine's pages give new proof of Carlyle's poetical insight into individual character. The chapter on Marat, Danton, and Robespierre, for example, contains very little but anecdotes which confirm the truth of the picture drawn by Carlyle of these Revolutionary leaders. But the moment you have mastered Taine, you feel that the Carlylean view of the Revolution, and still more the popular impressions derived from that view, must be revised. To see that this is so, one has little to do but to take the ideas which prevail among Englishmen as to the nature of the Revolution—notions not, perhaps, distinctly held by Carlyle himself, but nevertheless fostered by his teachings—and observe how ill they bear the tests of fact to which they and the like theories are submitted by Taine.

The assumption which lies at the foundation of the Revolutionary romance, whatever be the form or modifications of the legend, is that great crimes can only be committed by great criminals; that the Terrorists, though they must excite horror, yet must also command the respect or admiration due to men of colossal mould who, even in their errors, sin greatly. Now the first point proved by Taine, or rather by the evidence which he adduces, is, that meanness, cupidity, incompetence were the distinguishing marks of the Jacobin crew. Of their three leading men, Danton was the only one who possessed a claim to intellectual power. Their ideas were the worst notions of the *ancien régime*, pushed to an exaggeration to which they had never been carried by any King or minister. Oddly enough, the cruelty of the Revolutionists has saved their character for statesmanship. The horrors of the Reign of Terror—though, if Taine is not grossly mistaken in his figures, even these horrors are in modern days much underrated—have diverted attention from the meanness and incompetence

of the Terrorists. Of their moral meanness, Taine gives conclusive proofs, resting on a mass of details which, unfortunately, space prevents us from laying before our readers. The members of the dreaded Convention, the leaders of the Mountain itself, the men who sat in the committees of public safety, were themselves subject to the abject fear which they inspired in others. The surest evidence of this is the ease with which one section of Revolutionists after another forsook their leaders. The men who believed in Danton, in Hébert, and in Robespierre no sooner found that their hero was in peril than they betrayed and turned upon him. Cowardice does not necessarily imply corruption, but the Revolutionists of France appear in Taine's picture as corrupt as they were brutal and cowardly. We have read again and again the third chapter of Taine's third book, and, admitting as a candid critic must do, that Taine's attitude is rather that of an advocate than a judge, we are unable to deny that he in the main proves his charge that the Revolutionary administrators were influenced at least as much by greed as by ferocity. We would ask any reader who doubts this to read pp. 280-320, and especially the astounding account given at pp. 317-319 of the way in which one Parisian Revolutionary committee contrived to make (for the private gain, it would seem, of its members) somewhere about \$30,000 a year out of a body of well-to-do prisoners, who were kept alive that they might be plundered. It is absolutely impossible to give the real force of Taine's evidence when one cannot produce the hundreds of details by which he carries conviction to all who will carefully study his pages. And we must ask our readers to take to a certain extent on trust the assertion that Taine does fully establish his accusation of corruption—not, of course, against every Revolutionist, but against an immense body of Jacobin officials and administrators.

True, men may be both cruel and corrupt, and yet not precisely mean. Nevertheless, the fact which the whole annals of the Revolution make abundantly clear is, that inhuman cruelty was, in the case of the Jacobins, constantly combined with even more astonishing abjectness. Macaulay pointed out years ago the incredible meanness of Barère; and persons who have not reflected on the demoralizing effect of revolutions, might well feel it almost past belief that one who had played a leading part in history, who had shared the Dictatorship of France, could sink into the meanest of detectives. Yet, though Barère was perhaps the most abject of a servile horde, a little knowledge of the history of the Terrorists shows that he was not so unlike his associates. Man after man among the Jacobins became the instrument of Napoleonic tyranny, and Taine gives instances of persons who had held the highest posts showing themselves willing, after a fall from power, to discharge the lowest of administrative functions. But "the great Terrorists," it will be said, "were men of a different stamp." Who can guarantee the truth of this assertion? Everything we know looks the other way. It was a mere chance who were to be the victors and who the victims in the life-and-death struggle between Robespierre and his opponents. There is not the least reason to suppose that the Jacobins who survived were essentially different from their companions who perished. Barère, David, and Fouché were, when Jacobinism was in vogue, thought stern patriots, yet they and hundreds more showed no repugnance to accept imperial honors, bribes, or charity. Victor Hugo's celebrated picture of the aged member of the Convention on his death-bed may possibly have been drawn from life. It were too grave a charge against human nature to believe that the Convention nurtured in its body nothing heroic. But one can confidently assert that it was a school

not of Spartan virtue but of Greek suppleness. The aged representative of Republican virtue must, from the very fact of his having survived, have been forced to say with Sieyès, "J'ai vécu"; and no public man survived the rule of Robespierre who had not lived as a slave.

A second assumption of the Revolutionary legend, and one to which Carlyle has given the full weight of his authority, is that the reign of the Jacobins was at any rate the reign of men who, under the inspiration of passion, knew how to rule. The Terrorists might be devil-sent leaders, but yet, somehow or other, they were, it is supposed, true leaders of France. Now the slightest reflection shows that to the claim of violence to pass for strength there are patent objections. If the Reign of Terror saved France at all, it saved France at the cost of engendering a hatred of Republicanism fatal to the policy of fanatics who wished to found a Republic. The name not only of Danton but of every Republican leader was branded with infamy, and France was not made free. The broad fact, that the French somehow or other came out victorious in the contest with allied Europe—a fact to which, it must frankly be admitted, Taine does not give half the weight which it deserves—has so impressed popular imagination, that the world finds it difficult to believe that audacity and ill-doing were not in some way equivalent to statesmanlike sagacity. But Taine gives the gravest reason for doubting whether France did not triumph rather in spite of than through the violence of the Jacobins. That the men who composed the Jacobin faction were grossly ignorant, is past a doubt; and if we judge of the statesmanship of the party by the ordinary tests of political foresight, we shall be greatly tempted to believe that the criminality of a government gives no security against its incapacity.

To one point in Taine's criticism the attention of all intelligent students should be carefully directed. He examines with infinite care the economics of Jacobinism. The whole sect might have adopted as their motto a dictum of an English workman, which some twenty years ago used to be cited as a proof of popular ignorance. "If political economy," said this intelligent artisan, "was against the workmen, the workmen would set themselves against political economy." Now, this is precisely the course pursued by the political zealots who decreed the *maximum*, and who attempted to keep Paris alive by robbing the country districts of food. If Taine is to be believed, the principles of political economy showed themselves as little complaisant toward the Jacobins as toward any other fanatics. The sum of his detailed investigation is, that the rural districts were plundered and that Paris was starved. Nor was this, according to our author, the effect of war or of bad seasons. Nature was kinder to France than its rulers; the harvest was plentiful, but the spirit even of the laborers was so broken that, for perhaps the only time in French history, French peasants refused to cultivate their land. Four strokes of good fortune—namely, the softness of the winter, the arrival of a corn fleet from America, the victories of the armies in Europe, and lastly the fall of Robespierre—saved France from destruction in 1794.

Another feature which marks all the current representations of the Revolution is the practical obliteration from the picture of the Directorial period. The opening scenes of the great Revolutionary drama, the tragedies of the Reign of Terror, the heroism of the volunteers, the triumphs of Napoleon, are all remembered; but the six years of the Directory have all but passed out of recollection. Their dreariness and their meanness have secured to them oblivion; yet no one can understand the Revolution who does not

study the years which elapsed between the death of Robespierre and the commencement of the Consulate. It is one of the greatest of Taine's merits to have brought this forgotten era of bloodshed, fraud, and incapacity into view. The Terror did not end with Robespierre, it never came to a close till Napoleon's *coup d'état* put an end to the last vestiges of the Convention. Taine's pages make two features of this period so clearly visible that they can hardly ever again be overlooked. The first is, that the Convention retained by fraud and violence an authority which, if the voice of France could have been heard, would have been summarily abolished. The second is, that the voice of the French nation never, if Taine is right, was heard till a burst of applause hailed a military Dictatorship which at any rate restored a civilized form of government. Once and again the nation made an effort to enforce its will; one stroke of violence after another taught the whole people that, if Robespierre was dead, a clique as unscrupulous as, and rather meaner than, Robespierre and his followers were determined to keep power, whether by or against the will of France. The Directory was a continuation of Jacobin rule, and, according to Taine's view, the country took each year less and less part in public affairs, while the Government kept itself alive by a series of *coups d'état*, and by playing off the Jacobin mob against the Moderates. Whether this view of the time of the Directory is entirely correct, may admit of doubt. But the importance of the fact that contemporaries saw nothing of that break between the rule of Robespierre and the rule of the Directors which exists in the minds of modern readers, is, we take it, certain and of primary importance. It is worth noting that Burke's "Regicide Peace" was written three or four years after the fall of Robespierre.

Taine's view of the Directory falls in with and strikingly confirms his general theory, which is, that the rule of the Jacobins was the rule of all that was basest and worst in the French nation. The Revolutionary storm came upon a country where despotism had deprived men of all experience and of all capacity in the art of government. The weakness of the King, the universal unpopularity of the existing régime, the prevalence of theories which were at bottom revolutionary, and other causes, destroyed the royal power. At last a few fanatics gathered round themselves all that was violent and vile in the nation. The very drops of society were stirred and rose to the surface. This, as we understand it, is Taine's view of the Revolution. That it contains an element of neglected truth is certain; but a writer may tell you what is true and yet not perceive, and therefore not tell, the whole truth of the matter which he has in hand. In a future article we shall give our reasons for refusing to feel that Taine's work contains the final solution of the problem presented by the Revolution.

CHRISTIANITY IN INDIA.

Life and Work in Benares and Kumaon: 1839-1877. By James Kennedy, M.A. Cassell & Co. 1884.

CHRISTIAN bishops, even army chaplains, had, as is well known, a hard battle to fight before they could establish a lodgment in the Indian possessions of the Honorable East India Company. The Court of Directors, and not less the officials who governed in their name in India, were profoundly convinced that their Hindu and Moslem subjects would endure all things except the appearance among them of a duly ordained Christian minister. An invasion of the clerical order was an invasion which even those who had known what it was to be invaded by Tamerlane, Mahmud of Ghuzni, Nadir Shah, Portuguese,

Frenchmen, and, last but not least, the Honorable East India Company itself, could not be expected to endure without resistance. That, so it was said, would be the last feather on the camel's back—the spark that would cause an explosion of fanaticism more than sufficient to sweep the English out of the Peninsula. But the Government was not content with the simple exclusion from India of the clergy of all denominations. So careful were the officials of those early days not to offend the supposed susceptibilities of the native population, that they abstained from the public profession of any creed. English officials assisted at the celebration of Hindu and Moslem religious ceremonies; they carefully administered the endowments of temple and mosque; they even kept the account of the amount of oil consumed on the shrines of Hindu divinities; but they abstained with exemplary prudence from engaging in any religious rite on their own account. When an English army took the field it was unaccompanied by ministers of religion; and the ordinary substitute for religious worship on Sundays was to read the Articles of War to each regiment assembled for that purpose. It was a common belief among the natives, in those early days of British ascendancy, that the English were an abnormal race of people, having no religion or spiritual beliefs of any kind. At last, by the direct action of Parliament, the Court of Directors was constrained to make public confession of its Christianity, and provide an ecclesiastical establishment for the English soldiers employed in its service. That being accomplished, it became impossible to exclude the missionaries.

But the English officials were very far from reconciling themselves to what they could not prevent, and for thirty years the missionaries had to strive against opposition and difficulties which more than account for the scanty progress they made. A native who had the courage to become a Christian was treated by the (Christian) Government of India as if he had committed a crime of the first magnitude. The Hindu or the Moslem law, according to the creed which he had previously professed, was allowed to be set in operation in order to strip him of whatever property or social position he was born to. At the same time to the English officials, the givers of all good things in India, a native could bring with him no such damnable fact as the profession of Christianity. Although it was known to all English officials that it was not possible, under the laws as they stood, for any native to become a Christian except at the cost of very heavy sacrifices, it was customary to assert that conversions were caused by the promptings of a sordid self-interest. A native Christian was, in fact, a word of reproach; and native Christians were systematically slighted and spoken ill of by English Christians. The insurrection of 1857—so fruitful of change in a thousand other ways—put an end also to this harsh opinion of native Christians, which never had been anything but an ignorant and irrational prejudice. The English residents saw with surprise that wherever there was a community of native Christians, there also was a community loyal to the English rule. The native Christians not merely aided the English to the utmost of their ability, but there were not a few among them who endured martyrdom rather than apostatize from the faith for which they had already endured so much. Facts such as these could but bring about a change in the feeling with which missionary enterprise was regarded, and, at the present time, there are few thoughtful Englishmen in India who would care to deny that a good missionary is a very powerful friend and ally of the British Government. His value is not to be measured by his success in the work of conversion, but by the fact that he

and his fellow-workers are the only Europeans who go to India, and who stay there, to give something to the people, and not merely to make a living out of them. The natives may not value the gift which the missionaries offer, but they see that, at any rate, they ask nothing from them. They are neither officials, tea-planters, indigo-planters, merchants, lawyers, nor judges. Their labors, so far as the natives are concerned, are altogether disinterested; and as one consequence of this unique position, a missionary who has mastered the native languages is, perhaps, the one Englishman in India who knows something of the people as they really are. In the presence of all other Englishmen they wear a mask.

The book under notice is an account by Mr. James Kennedy of his labors as a missionary, extending over a period of thirty-six years—at first in Benares, the religious capital of Hinduism, and latterly in the hill district of Kumaon. It is written in a lively, unaffected style, which carries the reader easily along; and the accounts of the religious life of the Hindus, the temples and bathing ghâts of Benares, and the great religious fairs at Allahabad, put the people and their surroundings very clearly before us. The author is too thoroughly a "Britisher"—too absolutely confident, that is, that everything British must be immeasurably superior to all things that are not British—to possess the insight of sympathy for the character of those among whom his life was passed; but this deficiency is not without instruction as indicating, perhaps, the most formidable hindrance to the Christianizing of British India.

The fact commonly pleaded to account for the little progress made by the various Christian missions in India is the immobility of the Asiatic character. But as regards the religious history of India this does not happen to be a fact. That continent has been the theatre of a succession of religious revolutions of the widest and most drastic character. Buddhism established itself on the ruins of Brahminism; then Brahminism recovered its ascendancy, while Islamism continues even at this date to gather in an abundant harvest from among the lower castes of Southern India, and also in Eastern Bengal. Immobility as regards its religious convictions is the very last attribute that can be ascribed to the people of India; and if Christianity makes slower progress among them than did Islamism, the cause must be looked for in the character of the English rather than that of the native population. When this is done, the marvel, in our opinion, will be, not that Christian missions have effected so little, but that they have accomplished so much. The splendor and magnificence of the Mohammedan conquerors of India are still to be seen, all over the country, in their beautiful and stateley mosques, palaces, shrines, tombs, tanks, aqueducts, and other public works; but that which most concerns us at present is the profound religious faith which, so to speak, is embodied in these grand edifices. They were all erected to the glory of Allah and his Prophet. The Faith, it is perfectly clear, was always the first thought in the Mohammedan mind; and an imaginative people like the Hindus could not fail to be deeply impressed by such a fact as this. Secondly, the Moslems were not, like the English, mere birds of passage. They made India their country in as absolute a sense as did the Hindus whom they found established there; and all their works were, in consequence, done with a view to the future ages, not, as with the English, in order to secure a clear balance-sheet for the next year's budget. Thirdly, a Hindu, on becoming a Moslem, acquired at once and as a matter of course all the privileges of the conquering race. He entered into a higher state, instead of having to endure

the heavy sacrifices which the ingenuity of the Court of Directors had contrived for those misguided natives who were so lacking in worldly-wisdom as to become Christians. Lastly, there was no limit to the hopes which a Hindu becoming a Moslem might entertain. He might become the leader of an army, the Governor of a province, the chief minister of the whole mighty empire; but a Christian native can look forward to no such high possibilities. The ceremony of baptism cannot whiten his skin, and is, therefore, from the material point of view, quite valueless.

The English during the past quarter of a century may be said to have surpassed their Moslem predecessors in the matter of public works. They have built canals and constructed railways, but they do not pretend to have done these things for the sake of religion, but for pecuniary profit merely. Religiously, it cannot be denied that the English in India cut a very sorry figure when contrasted with their predecessors. The majority of the high officials are the merest Sadducees, who cannot be said to profess any religion at all. There are churches in India, but it is impossible to conceive of a more pitiful contrast than that between these mean and unsightly edifices and the magnificent structures in which Hindu Buddhist and Moslem gave expression to the faith that was in them. Judged by the Oriental standard in such matters, Englishmen in India may be said to treat their religion with insult and contumely; or their religion is rather to tolerate all religions than to believe in any one in particular. And the efforts of the missionaries are neutralized by the placid indifference of nearly every Englishman who does not happen to be a missionary.

The chief obstacle, however, which besets the missionary is that occasioned by the peculiar relation which exists between Englishmen and natives. The English are not merely the rulers of the country, but rulers in whose inner life, as individuals, the people are of no account—that is to say, the English in India form no attachments; no friendships, with the people of the country. A few among them may associate with the natives from a sense of duty; but for their mental and moral needs, their own countrymen are sufficient, and not one Englishman in a thousand, when the hour comes for leaving India for good, is sensible of a wrench, of a void being created in his life by the separation from any native whom he has known. No greater obstacle in the way of mission work can be conceived than a state of mind such as this. It denotes the want of that touch of nature which makes the whole world kin, and yet it is a defect from which the English missionary is, of necessity, as little exempt as the English official. It is painfully apparent in Mr. Kennedy's record of his thirty-six years' experiences. From the beginning to the end we are not introduced to a single native who stood to Mr. Kennedy in the relation of a friend. That title is reserved for application to men of his own race and language exclusively. Indeed, it is extremely seldom that an inhabitant of the country, Christian or otherwise, receives from Mr. Kennedy any more particular description than "a native." Contrast this attitude of aloofness with the feelings of the Apostle Paul toward individual members of the churches which he had founded, and we shall find little difficulty in understanding why Christianity in India does not spread and develop as in the days of Imperial Rome.

Stops: or, How to Punctuate. By Paul Allardyce. London: T. Fisher Unwin; Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.; Philadelphia: George H. Buchanan & Co.

We have not had the patience to read beyond

the comma in this little book. The treatment is neither lucid, logical, nor consistent: it is sometimes fatuous, as witness the rules for inserting points before "and" and "or." For lack of a few general principles, rules and exceptions are multiplied and long discussions entailed, which can only bewilder and mystify the student. Here is what comes of not having laid down the law of parenthesis and of the interchangeability of points:

"X. Words thrown in so as to interrupt slightly the flow of a sentence are marked off by commas."

After the examples, we read in a smaller type:

"Where the words thrown in make a very distinct break in the sentence, they should be pointed off by means of the dash or brackets."

"The following are some of the words and phrases that come under this rule: *therefore, too, indeed, however, . . . all things considered.*"

The chances are that "this rule" will be taken to refer to the preceding clause about the employment of dashes and brackets, whereas not one of the words or phrases cited is at all liable to be pointed in this way.

We have space but for one other instance of the want of clearness in the author's own mind. Rule VIII reads as follows:

"When the subject consists of several parts, *e. g.*, of several nouns, a comma is placed after the last part."

The two examples cited under this involve a plural verb, as, "time, money, and friends, were needed to carry on the work." The author then disposes of "an apparent exception to it," viz., "Freedom, honor, religion was at stake." It will scarcely be believed that he accounts for the omission of the comma after "religion" on the ground that this noun sums up all the others, or marks the highest point of a climax. "When so great a thing as religion is said to be at stake, everything else is dropped out of sight or is held to be included. But write the three names as if they were of equal importance; the comma should then be inserted: Freedom, honor, and religion, were at stake." The simple truth is, of course, that there is a climax in both examples; and that the only reason for inserting a comma after "religion" in the second is in order to remove the appearance of a singular noun being the subject of a plural verb. This is a concession (by no means a necessary one) to the eye. A concession to the ear would be the insertion of a comma in the first example, to mark the rhetorical pause induced by the omission of the conjunction.

Recollections of Fly-fishing for Salmon, Trout, and Grayling, with Notes on their Haunts, Habits, and History. By Edward Hamilton. M.D., F.L.S., etc. Orange Judd Company. 1885.

SAMPSON LOW, MARSTON & Co. have recently issued a large-paper edition of this book (of 100 copies), of which, except in size and Mr. Haden's name at the bottom of the beautiful mezzotint in the frontispiece, this is a reproduction. The paper is very slightly inferior, the print quite as good; and if the book was really produced by the American publishers, it is a most creditable typographical feat for this country. The literary part of the volume is equally deserving of commendation. Salmon fishing is first treated of, and much useful information is distributed through the eighty-five pages devoted to it, along with delightful narrations of personal experiences in angling. These, by the way, are met with throughout the book, except in the chapters devoted to the "Natural History" of the various fish, which are learned as well as interesting. Doctor Hamilton gives a good many valuable hints, which no doubt would prove as successful

here as in the streams of Scotland and England, where he has practised them. For instance, on p. 40, under salmon fishing, he says: "When the water is very bright and clear in the pools many a fish may be hooked and landed by allowing the fly to sink as deep as you can and then slowly sink and draw, never bringing the fly near the surface. You see a movement in the water, a swirl and a twist, and your line tightens. You might fish all day in such times with the fly near the surface and never move a fish." The same plan often works well with trout.

We cannot, however, agree with Doctor Hamilton when he says, p. 16: "Many a fish [salmon] cast over never sees the fly," etc. We have too much faith in the unwinking vigilance of the fish, and have too often seen him shoot like a great streak of light at a fly passing half a dozen yards or more from his lair, to believe he cannot see anything he wants to that comes within ten yards or more of him in the clear streams he loves. Doctor Hamilton agrees with the more intelligent of modern ichthyologists in holding that salmon do feed in fresh water, and take the fly because they want to eat it, and not through sport or emotional insanity. The book is both entertaining and valuable for its matter and its appearance. The preface states that Mr. Haden, as is the case with many distinguished Englishmen, "is a most observant and successful fly-fisher."

The Historical Reference Book, comprising a Chronological Table of Universal History, a Chronological Dictionary of Universal History, a Biographical Dictionary, with Geographical Notes. For the Use of Students, Teachers, and Readers. By Louis Heilprin. D. Appleton & Co. 1885. 8vo, pp. 560.

MR. HEILPRIN'S 'Historical Reference Book' aims to give in a very condensed form those items of information which the student or general reader will be most likely to need. The three parts are of course to a certain extent complementary to each other: Part 2 may almost be called an index to Part 1, inasmuch as it contains largely the same events alphabetically arranged (but for the most part merely by titles), which are found chronologically arranged in Part 1. The chronological table, coming first in the book, may probably be considered its most important feature. Its peculiar value consists in its giving at a glance a synchronistic view of the events of any one year; each nation or group of nations having its annals in a separate paragraph, while non-political events come at the end of the year's chronicle. Thus for 1884 there are seven divisions—the United States, the French War in China, the Egyptian War, the Conference of the Emperors, the Crisis in Spain, the Russians in Asia, and an obituary line containing Mignet, Reade, Lepsius, Makart; the whole occupying a little over half a page. There is room in a book of this class for a wide diversity of opinion as to the events to be given; but we miss hardly anything that we should consider desirable, and we have not been able to detect a single mistake or misprint. We must, however, consider it a serious error of judgment to follow Rawlinson in early Roman history; for, whatever his rank in Oriental history, he has absolutely no authority in Roman, and his dates differ materially from those commonly accepted. Of course no dates for this period are to be taken as absolutely fixed; but when all authorities in Roman history like Mommsen give, for example, 494 for the First Secession, and 367 for the Licinian Law, it is an unnecessary source of perplexity to give the dates of these events as 492 and 364. It is true the accepted date is added in a parenthesis, but the reader cannot fail to get the impression that this

is the date of the least authority. With the exception of this single feature, this book must be pronounced a remarkably accurate and convenient book of reference, and may be recommended as probably the best of its class.

Medallie Portraits of Washington. With Historical and Critical Notes and a Descriptive Catalogue of the Coins, Medals, Tokens, and Cards. By W. S. Baker. Philadelphia: Robert M. Lindsay.

THIS carefully prepared and handsome volume is a new indication of the progress which numismatics has made in the United States. It contains 651 numbers, arranged in classes according to the occasion of the striking of the medal whose history is given, and is believed to include all the medals struck with the head of Washington. In the preface the author attacks with justice the absurd prejudice which prevented the coinage of the United States from bearing the portraits of the successive Presidents. The introduction of the ex-Presidents with a certain delay would at least be one expedient to relieve our currency of the monotony of device which is one of its characteristics. It would, too, give at least a chance for now and then a fine coin, furnish a motive for the production of fine medallion heads, and a little encouragement to our artists in that genre.

Centennial History of American Methodism. By John Atkinson, D.D. Phillips & Hunt.

DR. ATKINSON'S title-page is of the old-fashioned sort. It describes his book so copiously that if we quoted it in full our occupation would be gone. But it does not describe his book so accurately that the reader will not be seriously disappointed to find that he has not written a history of a century of Methodism, but only a history of "its ecclesiastical organization in 1784, and its subsequent development under the superintendency of Francis Asbury, with sketches of the character and history of all the preachers known to have been members of the Christmas Conference" of 1784. What Dr. Atkinson, however, has given us is much more interesting than a history of Methodism from 1784 till now could possibly have been within the limits of five hundred pages. The necessary condensation would have been fatal. What we have, in reality, is a very brief introduction, which treats of the origin of Methodism in the United States, then an hiatus of some fifteen years, next quite a full account of the years from 1784 to 1790, and finally several brief chapters on the ensuing six and twenty years—i.e., to Asbury's death in 1816. Dr. Atkinson makes no definitive settlement of the much mooted question whether American Methodism originated in Maryland in 1763, or in New York in 1769. The date of the New York beginning is easily verified; that of the Maryland beginning is veiled in doubt. It is certain that the New York beginning was much more important, and soon attracted the attention of Wesley. In 1769 he sent over two missionaries, and in 1771 Francis Asbury and Richard Wright. Others followed, but it was Asbury who gave the enterprise assurance of success. If Wesley himself had come, it would not have been so well, for Wesley's sympathies were with the mother country during the Revolution, as Asbury's were not. Most of the preachers that Wesley sent over sympathized with him, generally to the ruin of their usefulness. Nevertheless, in 1784, the new sect had eighty ministers and some 15,000 members.

"The Christmas Conference," which met in Baltimore in 1784, was the means of organizing the American Methodists as an independent

Church. Wesley had not intended this, and his chagrin at the result was unmistakable. He had appointed Asbury and Coke joint superintendents, expecting them to be subject to him and to the Church of England, from which he had never severed himself. Asbury declined the appointment from Wesley, but agreed to accept it from the American preachers. The Conference of 1784 was summoned to act upon this matter, one of the heralds riding twelve hundred miles in six weeks to summon the preachers. Dr. Atkinson's second chapter gives an excellent account of the make-up of the Conference, with brief sketches of the more prominent members. His third chapter deals with the relation of Wesley to the new church. He makes it plain enough that Wesley's intentions were frustrated by the Conference, not less effectually because unwittingly. Asbury wrote after his death: "I can truly say for one, that the greatest affliction and sorrow of my life was that our dear father from the time of the Revolution to his death grew more and more jealous of myself and the whole American Connection; and it appeared we had lost his confidence entirely." But the subjection of the American Methodists to Wesley was not denied by the Conference of 1784; only their subjection to the Church of England. In 1787 Wesley's name was dropped from the minutes as a superintendent with Asbury and Coke, and this action, Coke insisted, hastened his death.

Dr. Atkinson's fifth and sixth chapters, reciting the early conquests of the newly-organized Church, tell a story of missionary zeal and heroism and endurance to equal which we must go to Parkman's 'Jesuits in North America.' No wonder

the increase of membership in six years was from 15,000 to 57,000, and of preachers from 80 to 227! All that Asbury expected from his preachers and itinerants he embodied in himself. It is impossible to overestimate the debt that American Methodism owes to him. In 1799 he wrote that his labors obliged him to ride about 6,000 miles annually, to preach from 300 to 500 sermons a year, to write 1,000 letters, to station some 300 preachers, and to spend many hours each day in reading and important conversation. Dr. Atkinson gives an entire chapter to him, but his whole book is virtually his monument.

The subjects of other chapters are: "The Old Itinerancy," "The Sunday-school in Methodism," "The New Church and Education," "Thomas Coke," who had no such aptitude as Asbury for the work in hand, "The Preachers of the Christmas Conference," "The Old Camp-Meetings," etc., etc. In 1806, when Asbury had still ten years to live, the Church had 130,000 members and 450 preachers. In speaking of this growth and of the means by which it was accomplished Dr. Atkinson's tone is warm, but not without excuse. The Methodists whose triumphs he records deserved them well. In an Appendix there are tables tending to refute the charge that Methodism has had less success in large cities than elsewhere. There are other tables giving the names of 102 educational institutions now existing under Methodist control. They have in them nearly 30,000 students, and their buildings and endowments are valued at nearly \$15,000,000. But these magnificent statistics do not begin to be so elevating and inspiring as the earlier portions of the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addie's Husband. A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Bancroft, G. History of the United States, from the Discovery of the Continent. The Author's Last Revision. Vol. VI. and last. D. Appleton & Co.
Barr, Amelia E. The Hallam Succession. A Tale of Methodist Life in Two Countries. Phillips & Hunt. \$1.
Blaisdell, Dr. A. F. Our Bodies, or How We Live. An Elementary Text-Book of Physiology and Hygiene. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 60 cents.
Brennan, M. S. A Popular Exposition of Electricity, with Sketches of Some of its Discoverers. D. Appleton & Co.
Buchanan, R. M. A Tale of the Caravan. D. Appleton & Co., 25 cents.
Chandler, Mrs. W. Anthò. Phillips & Hunt. \$1.
Cherbuliez, V. Olivier Maugant. F. W. Christern.
Dickens, C. A Dictionary of the University of Oxford. Macmillan & Co. \$1.
Ebers, G. Scerapis. A Romance. W. S. Gottsberger.
Farjeon, R. L. Great Porter Square: A Mystery. Harper's Franklin Square Library.
Farrand, Elizabeth M. History of the University of Michigan. Ann Arbor: Register Publishing House.
Fish, D. T. Cassell's Popular Gardening. Illustrated. Vol. I. Cassell & Co. \$2.
Hoffmann, E. T. W. Weird Tales. With a Biographical Memoir, by J. T. Bealy. In 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Holland, F. M. The Rise of Intellectual Liberty, from Thales to Copernicus. Henry Holt & Co. \$3.50.
Kaisch, Rev. I. Ha-Tapuah: The Apple. A Treatise on the Immortality of the Soul, by Aristotle. American Hebrew.
Kenyon, J. B. Songs in All Seasons. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. \$1.
Knortz, K. Representative Poems, Ballad and Lyrical. Original Texts with English Versions by Various Translators. Henry Holt & Co. \$3.50.
Knox, A. Differential Calculus for Beginners. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Lilly, W. S. Characteristics, Political, Philosophical, and Religious, from the Writings of Henry Edward, Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster. Catholic Publication Society.
Low-Pulling. The Dictionary of English History. Cassell & Co. \$6.
Mason, E. T. Personal Traits of British Authors. Scott-Hogg—Campbell—Wilson—De Quincy—Jeffrey. With portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.
Twain, Mark. Adventures of Huckleberry Finn. Illustrated. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Underhill, N. Leah. The Missing Link in Modern Spiritualism. Thomas R. Knox & Co.
Ward, Mrs. Humphrey. Miss Bretherton. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. \$1.
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Wilstach, J. W. Montalembert. A Biographical Sketch. Catholic Publication Society.

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Guide to the Civil Service of the United States. Edited by John M. Comstock, Chairman of the Board of Examiners of Customs, New York. 12mo, \$2.

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